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How We Do Things Around Here. The Polish-Dutch Comparison Of The University Organisational Culture

Abstract: Analyses and international comparisons of university organisational cultures are rare or even non-existing in management studies. Our paper fills this gap, presenting the results of a pilot study conducted in two units representing a Polish and a Dutch university. The survey has been carried out on a basis of a model and a measuring tool created by the Dutch researcher Aldert P. Dreimüller. Using two dimensions of change tolerance vs. control; and internal vs. external orientation he proposed a typology of four organisational cultures: task, aim, team and process culture. Each type is described with the same set of criteria. The types identified in the course of our survey are interpreted through the lens of the national cultures of the Netherlands and Poland. However, the main result of the study, and thus the main aim of this paper, is a multi-faceted usage and test of the Dreimüller's tool.

Key-words: organisational culture, university, Dreimüller, Poland, the Netherlands

Introduction

The complementarity of culture and organisations is getting more and more recognised, ranging from doing business abroad through multicultural society to organisational culture. Yet, the progress in application is slow, due to, amongst others, the lack of ready-to-use reliable instruments. Business needs practical tools, not a series of trainings, exceptions and disclaimers. As early as in 1992 Martin said

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“Given this conceptual chaos, it is no wonder that researchers adopt simplifying theoretical perspectives, fail to appreciate (or even read) research conducted within other perspectives, and argue about incommensurabilities” [Martin J., 1992, p. v].

This paper focuses on organisational culture and demonstrates a practical tool referring to a typology, which may be useful in an organisational culture analysis and comparisons. Like other tools it is only a starting point for a more detailed discussion of the organisational culture of the institution in question and the ways and means of changing it, if necessary. However, it is also a recent tool, the result of a Dutch PhD thesis and one of the few, based on the European research. Laying emphasis on the European research is of importance because national values give a specific, national bias in favour of certain values in research on organisational culture, whether we like it or not. The American research is biased by American values and would not be fully applicable in a European context. In business, this idea is reinforced by the different economic systems with their different orientations on e.g. shareholders, customers and management.

Organisational culture is of importance for an institution’s survival, effectiveness and efficiency. It is of importance for how people are doing their job without much supervision (soft controls), the relationships with stakeholders and the health and turnover of personnel (more satisfied by working in the right place). It has a strong relation with strategy, structure and control (see for instance Hofstede 2010, p. 372). As such it should be analysed in relation to every kind of organisation regardless it’s sector, domain or size. Organisational culture studies regarding universities are very rare or even non-existing. According to our knowledge this limited number of contributions focuses rather on the contemporary situation and the role that is played by higher education institution in the global economy [see Chaput C., 2008; Gipp G.E., Warner L.S., 2009] than on the analyses of specific university organisational culture. It may be concluded then that the shoemaker’s children are ill-shod. Our paper tries to fill this gap. However, the inspiration to write it was born on the basis of our long-term cooperation and inevitable comparisons of the policies and practices of the Polish and the Dutch university.

We start our presentation with the nature of organisational culture and general problems referring to the organisational culture measurement and classification, however without going into detail. Then we go on to the presentation of our survey core theoretical background which is Dreimüller’s organisational culture typology. The further paragraphs show a method used in the survey, samples and the survey results, respectively for the Polish and the Dutch respondents. The paper ends with discussion and implications for future research.

Organisational culture. Theory and practice

The quest for understanding organisational culture, leave alone a relevant instrument for business already has continued for half a century but has proven

rather elusive. The research is a maze of disciplines, inductive–deductive, theories, methods, empirical testing, concepts, perspectives, axes, typologies, divergence and diversity, colours, observations, descriptions, interviews, questionnaires, aspects, games, change, functions and use, enculturation, relation with climate, strong and weak cultures, industry cultures, occupational cultures, project cultures and more. Not surprisingly, this maze results in insufficient exchanges between researchers, countries and disciplines.

The shortest definition of culture is following: culture is an institution [Vroom, 2002, p. 197]. For a sociologist an institution is a way of thinking, acting and feeling. Culture then becomes a way of thinking, acting and feeling. Because sociology studies groups of the people, an institution, and hence a culture, belongs to a group of people (e.g. the organisation) and is further delineated by a given time and place. Hofstede defines it as “the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one organization from others”, also in the mind of stakeholders [Hofstede G., 2010, p. 344]. However, as Schein says “a chronic issue in conceptualizing ‘culture’ seems to be whether we should think of culture as a ‘state’ or static property of a given group/organization or as a human process of constructing shared meaning that goes on all the time” [Schein E., 2000, p.XXIV] and in the latter case may be used in a deliberate way.

Another important discussion ranges from the importance of values to a focus on practices. Hofstede stresses the latter position and it is also an outcome of GLOBE: “Results of the GLOBE Project to date suggest that national culture tends to reflect values, whereas organizational culture tends to reflect practices” [Ashkanasy N.M., Wilderom C.P.M. and Peterson M.F, 2000, p.386]. Looking at one aspect of values research underlines this position. Values are developed in the pre-adult years and for that reason they do not develop or change once they start working. From that perspective organisational culture is the rather specific mix and interaction (practices) of values of the employees that are linked to a national culture values. At the same time, organisational practices may be more difficult to research, more time consuming (interviews, observations) and less easy to compare (unique nature). According to Martin Hofstede: “Societies, organizations, and individuals represent the gardens, bouquets, and flowers of social science. Our research has shown that the three are related and part of the same social reality. If we want to understand our social environment, we cannot fence ourselves into the confines of one level only: we should be prepared to count with all three” [2010, p. 368].

Classifying and Measuring Organisational Culture

Every organisational culture is to some extent unique and unrepeatabe, however there is still a need for categorisation of this variety, both for scientific reasons and use in business practice. A few approaches have received particular interest in management studies.

In the classic approach proposed by Harrison [1972] and elaborated by Handy [1978] the types of organisational culture (power, role, task and person) are related to the two dimensions of centralisation and organisation formalisation. Although rather simple, the approach has been extremely influential and is playing a primary role in shaping the way in which scholars, students and practitioners understand the work environment [Brown 1998, p. 66]. Interestingly, another popular and significant classification of organisational cultures created by Deal and Kennedy [1982] led to the relatively similar results. Although based on the different dimensions (i.e. the company's activity degree of risk and feedback speed) and proposed labels of culture types are more colourful than in the previous typology (the tough-guy – macho culture, work hard/play hard culture, bet-your-company culture, process culture) the essence of each type may be identified with Harrison/Handy's approach. To some extent the analogy may be found in the next leading concept created by Cameron and Quinn [2006]. They developed a model of competing values. Their research started with a list of 39 possible indicators of organisational effectiveness but through statistical analyses brought these 39 down to two dimensions (flexibility vs. control and internal vs. external orientation) and four clusters.

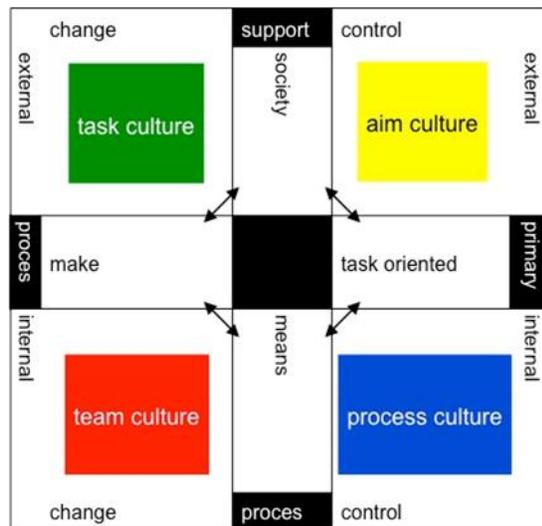
The aforementioned proposals discuss organisations but actually talk about companies, not NGO's or governments. Furthermore, they do not refer to the values research and hence, their statement that the culture clusters represent values is an assumption. They note, however that the literature indicates how organisational values have been associated with forms of organisations (possibly only in a US context). They state that the (unproven) strength of the clusters identified in every approach (four clusters in each) defines them as four cultural types. Thirdly, none of those approaches fully explain their starting point, i.e. the selection of axes or dimensions. Why just two dimensions/axes (e.g. internal-external and change-control) and why these two? Other researchers come up with other dimensions and/or with more than two (up to seven) [see culture dimensions proposed by Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner 1997 and Schwartz 1992]. Nevertheless, each of them is declared as the key starting point for understanding organisational culture. If so, they would be all related and a two dimensional approach would be superficial.

As an attempt to overcome these simplifications the Hofstede organisational culture model [based on the work by Sanders and Neuijen 2005] recognises six autonomous and two semi-autonomous dimensions. The inductive research is based on interviews in 20 units of 10 companies in the Netherlands and Denmark. However, the application is commercially protected [description in Hofstede 2010, details not in the public domain].

Dreimüller’s Organisational Culture Typology

As mentioned before, in this paper we not only contribute to the university organisational culture analyses but also make a pilot usage of Dreimüller’s approach to measure/identify it. Dreimüller took the policy cycle and the improvement of the organisation as his starting points. The policy cycle consists of the development of strategy, measuring it through the balanced scorecard (BSC) and implementation. The BSC originally focuses on the primary and secondary processes, each with two aspects, one of which may be related to production and tasks and the other to means and society. Dreimüller converts the BSC into a typology of four cultures (figure 1), each of them described along the same set of criteria (including core of the culture and approach to systems, to making mistakes, staff, organisation, communication, success, management style and danger). Although the axes are very similar to those in the Quinn/Cameron’s approach, both the items constituting each culture type and culture types’ descriptions are different.

Figure 1: Dreimüller’s organisational culture typology



Source: own work.

The four cultures are described in catchwords in the table below (Table 1).

Table 1. Organisational cultures types according to Dreimüller

Criteria	Task culture	Aim culture	Team culture	Process culture
Core	Activities	Results	Adaptation	Systems, rules and procedures
Approach	The method, the objective becomes clear while doing the job	Use people effectively	Work tuned to employee	Formalised realisation of objectives
Systems	Adapting rules and procedures	Rules and procedures depending on objective	Broad interpretation of rules and procedures	Optimizing rules and procedures
Mistakes	Allows making mistakes	Failures do not exist	Improved, not punished	Preventing structural mistakes
Staff	Curious, innovative	Obedient, carry out instructions	Not controlled	Controlled
Organisation	Initiative, freedom, egalitarian, informal	Logical whole on basis of power	Security and consensus	Impersonal, no individual freedom, controls, provides security
Communication	Open	One-way traffic	Negotiations	Set down responsibilities, measuring and documentation
Success	New products	Market share	Care for people	Routine
Management style	Innovator, mediator, taking risk	Producer and manager	Mentor and stimulator	Controller and coordinator
Key	Creativity, improvisation, future directed	Position, winning, effective	Teamwork, trust, loyalty, preventing conflicts, the human being	Process, ratio, plans
Examples	R&D departments, advertising agencies, investment companies	Police stations, marketing departments, operation theatres	Retail trade, group practices	Insurance companies, government
Danger	Pursuing a hobby	Compartmentalization	Anarchy	Bureaucracy

Source: Dreimüller 2008b

On the basis of his PhD thesis Dreimüller developed a questionnaire, a website and a game [Dreimüller 2008a, 2008b]. Again, they are only the starting point of further discussions and they do result in a straightforward picture. Organisations generally have a dominating culture but also include aspects of other cultures. In the next paragraph we present results of the Dreimüller questionnaire application in two university units within the Polish and the Dutch culture. One of the aims of this study was to test the research tool in a multi-faceted way and for that reason the questionnaire was used in different manner in each organisation. However, results of both surveys indicate elements of the analysed units' organisational cultures and as such may serve as the basis for comparisons as well as suggestions for the universities management.

Method

The questionnaire, originally created in Dutch has been translated into English and then into Polish. The list of items included in the questionnaire is presented in an appendix. These items (statements) are grouped in four areas: the organisation, the management, the people and the decision-making. Each area consists of four sets of four statements each, representing four types of culture. Each time a respondent needs to divide 10 points over four statements. In our approach we have modified the original approach by asking the Polish respondents for a double assessment: the existing organisational culture and the desired one. This was done to find out whether the results differ and if respondents may cope with such a double assessment. It is also in line with two different ways of playing the related game. The answers were processed as follows:

1. For each statement the average score was calculated.
2. The average score for each culture type (team, task, aim, process) was calculated for each area (the organisation, management, people, decision making).
3. All four areas' results are gathered together and the average score for each culture type was calculated.

In the Polish university unit the survey was conducted in September 2014. The questionnaire was sent to all (i.e. 115) academic staff and 43 responses have been collected, which represents almost 40% of the population. In relation to the aim of the research (a multi-faceted test of tool) the arithmetic mean for the whole sample was calculated.

Simultaneously, at the Dutch university groups of fourth year students of business administration, selected according to their participation in courses on organisational culture, made a survey (combination of playing the game and discussions) to get an idea of their university unit culture, obtaining perceptions of lecturers, management and students. Their results do not stand the test of scientific rigour (representative samples, numbers of respondents etc.), but they do give impressions

about possible results variation according to a sub-culture. In the analysis of this part of the data we compare results of each respondent group as well as results gained by each group of students.

Sample

The analysed organisations are similar concerning their size and, obviously, the domain.

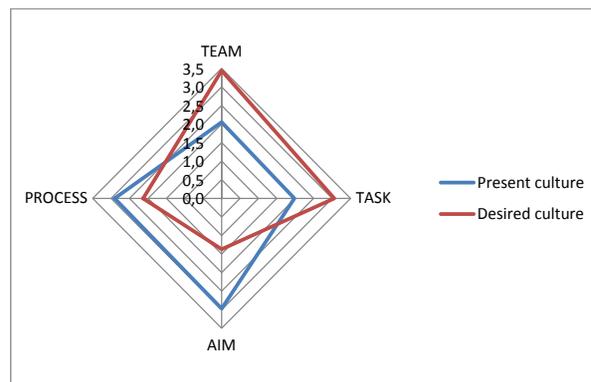
The Dutch university is a relatively large organisation with 34,000 students, 3,500 staff and 13 educational institutes. The institutes have key decision-making powers and the primary financial authority. The research has been conducted in the Institute of Management Studies.

The Polish university comprises of 17 faculties and 84 teaching programmes with 30,000 students and 4,300 employees including 2,200 teaching staff. The university governance has been decentralised recently and faculties received more decision-making powers. The idea of the organisational culture evaluation was met with a very positive reaction of a dean of the Faculty of Economics and Management. The results of the survey will be used in process of the faculty international certification.

Results: the Polish university unit

The survey has provided us with a multiplicity of data. In fact each of the 16 sets may be analysed separately delivering very interesting substance for in-depth study of the university organisational culture. However, considering the limited capacity of this paper we decided to present the final results reflecting the overall perception of existing and desired organisational culture as well as the most distinct scores in each analysed area; see figure 2.

Figure 2. Present and desire organisational culture of the Polish university unit in the assessment of the academic staff



Source: own work.

Average assessment of the statements in all four areas leads to the observation that the existing culture is a mixture of the process and aim type while the desired one comprises of elements of the task and team culture. As such this picture must be supplemented by the data regarding the specific area and statements. Table 2, therefore, presents the average scores of the highest evaluated statements for the existing and the desired culture in each statement set.

Table 2. The highest average scores for statements describing each category of the

Area	Statements	Culture Type	Average score
existing and desired culture of the Polish university unit			
The organisation	Existing: The organisation is structured, formal rules and procedures and strict management are characteristic.	Process	3,4
	Desired: The organisation is dynamic. Risks are taken, entrepreneurship may be noticed.	Task	3,1
	Existing: The organisation is mainly focused on rules, procedures, efficient production and maintaining the status quo.	Process	4,1
	Desired: The organisation is mainly focused on collegiality, safety, transparency and involvement in the objective of the organisation	Team	4,0
	Existing: The success of the organisation is determined by personnel development through involvement of and care for people.	Team	3,2
	Desired: The success of the organisation is determined by personnel development through involvement of and care for people.	Team	3,7
	Existing: The organisation treats people in the organisation as employees with a contract and mutual rights and duties.	Process	4,0
	Desired: The organisation treats people in the organisation as equals who unanimous aim at a common goals.	Task	4,3
The management	Existing: The management of the organisation does not like nonsense, is aggressive and wants to realise objectives.	Aim	3,0
	Desired: The management of the organisation guides, supports, stimulates, facilitates and cares for employees	Team	4,1
	Existing: The management is expected to be strong and decisive, hard but just.	Aim	3,0
	Desired: The management is expected to listen, to start the dialogue and to be open for ideas of employees.	Task	3,0
	Existing: The management focuses on external and internal competition, high demands, efforts and results.	Aim	2,7
	Desired: The management focuses on strong mutual relations, teamwork, consensus and participation.	Team	3,2
	Existing: You may say to another what needs to happen if the other has asked for help, guidance or advice.	Team	4,2
	Desired: You may say to another what needs to happen if the other has asked for help, guidance or advice.	Team	4,5

The People	Existing: People need to give priority to the implementation of their tasks within the existing rules and procedures.	Process	3,1
	Desired: People need to give priority to the common implementation of tasks and the mutual support in doing so.	Team	3,4
	Existing: People performing well are those who implement their work within the system according to the prevalent rules.	Process	3,2
	Desired: People performing well are those who are professionals and want to get the job done	Task	4,0
	Existing: Employees are expected to be hard working, obedient and loyal to the management.	Aim	3,4
	Desired: Employees are expected to good team players and have good contacts with one another.	Team	3,4
	Existing: People are motivated by their own motivation, the wish to contribute and by thinking of improvements.	Task	3,7
	Desired: People are motivated by their own motivation, the wish to contribute and by thinking of improvements.	Task	4,2
The Decision Making	Existing: Decisions are taken on the basis of orders and instructions by the management.	Aim	3,7
	Desired: Decisions are the result of agreement, acceptance and support by the employees	Team	3,7
	Existing: If rules and procedures are getting in the way they are violated if one has the power to do so or does not expect punishment.	Aim	3,5
	Desired: If rules and procedures are getting in the way people support one another by a wider interpretation of the rules and procedures.	Team	5,3
	Existing: The assignment of tasks or works is based upon the plans of the organisation in accordance with the existing rules.	Process	4,1
	Desired: The assignment of tasks or works is based upon the personal preferences of the employee (career) and in consultation.	Team	3,1
	Existing: Conflicts are normally avoided by referring to rules, procedures and responsibilities.	Process	3,6
	Desired: Conflicts are normally solved by discussions, aimed at finding win-win solutions.	Task	3,9

Source: own study

Both the general picture and the more detailed results in Table 2 show that the academic staff of the Polish university unit regards the organisational culture as control rather than change oriented. In reference to the organisation's internal environment, analysed in the questionnaire with the areas of 'the organisation' and 'the people', respondents consider the rules and procedures as the key means shaping the performance, also indicating the internal orientation in these two fields. In respect to the areas of 'management' and 'decision-making' the response suggests, however, a combination of control and external orientation. Specifically, the unit staff considered the management as rather centralized, demanding employee

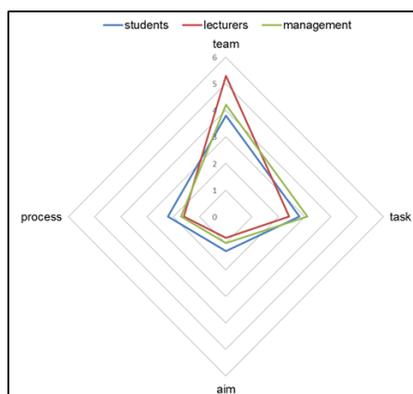
loyalty, obedience and hard-working but simultaneously focused on satisfying the superiors (in default: the university governance; this fact could be interpreted as leftovers of the previous centralized university system).

The answers given in reference to the desired organisational culture suggest, on the contrary, a preferred direction of change. The unit academic staff prefers an orientation on change and external environment. That means more focus on positive relationships at work, job satisfaction and team-work, accompanied by entrepreneurship and innovation. Only in case of two items the existing and desired cultures meet, i.e. in a definition of organisation success and staff motivation.

Results: the Dutch university unit

Figure 3 shows the organisational culture of one of the Institute of Management Studies, divided in the perceptions of students, lecturers and management. The research was done by using the game and interviewing people. Overall, the three groups have a more or less similar perception. Lecturers stress a more team oriented organisational culture. All three groups appear not to be interested in the aim culture.

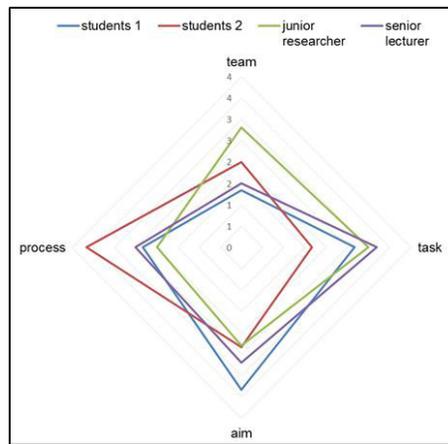
Figure 3. The Dutch university unit organisational culture in the perception of students, lecturers and management



Source: own work.

Two other groups of the fourth-year BA students had quite different perceptions of the organisational culture. In order to compare with others, a junior researcher and a senior lecturer researcher were asked to add their perceptions (figure 4). The four diagrams stress the aim culture, just the opposite of its non-importance of figure 3. Three out of four stress a task-oriented culture. The importance of a team-culture was mostly mentioned by the junior researcher. The main focus for the students was either a process or an aim-culture.

Figure 4. Different perceptions of the Dutch university unit organisational culture



Source: own work.

The diversified results of each group of respondents reflect the complexity of the organisational culture, which limits the usefulness of questionnaires such as Dreimüller's. The structure and university specificity stimulate also the existence of sub-cultures, which may explain the aforementioned differences in perceptions. We will come back to this issue in the 'discussion' paragraph. Before this, though, we would like to refer, at least to a limited extent, to the influence of the national culture on the organisational cultures of the Polish and Dutch university.

Link with national cultures

One of the sources of organisational cultures is the national culture of the country the company is located in [Schein 2000]. Despite the multiplicity of national culture frameworks, for demonstration purposes we have compared the Dutch and Polish national cultures on the basis of Solomon and Schell [2009]. Table 3 presents this model dimensions indexes for Poland and the Netherlands.

On the basis of Solomon and Schell we would expect that Dutch organisational culture in general, in terms of Dreimüller, is more open to change. Although Solomon and Schell do not give an indication of outwards orientation (internal-external), the Dutch have always had a very open economy. The two combined we might expect more of the task-orientation on the Dutch culture side and a slight inclination to the process-culture (control, internal) on the Polish side, which actually was demonstrated in our survey. At the same time one may wonder whether such an orientation (control, internal) reflects socialist days and whether the long-term Polish culture is more open. The expressed preference for a team and task-culture indicates a willingness to change and again one may wonder whether that reflects the change towards a pluralist democracy and market oriented economy.

The Dutch are also much more egalitarian than the Poles and much more direct in their communication. These two dimensions may be explanatory for the dominance of team culture over the aim culture at the Dutch university unit and the opposite result at the Polish university unit. The question is then if the desires for the team culture at the Polish university indicate changes of the Polish national culture towards egalitarianism.

Table 3. Solomon and Schell culture dimensions for Poland and the Netherlands

Dimension	5-9	10-13	14-17	18-21	22-25
Egalitarianism – hierarchy					
Individual versus group orientation					
Relations: transactional versus interpersonal					
Direct versus indirect communication					
Low or high value of time					
Change averse – change tolerant					
Motivation: work-life balance versus status					

Legend:  the Dutch national culture

 the Polish national culture

Source: Solomon and Schell 2009.

Discussion

Research of organisational culture cannot be done without cultural biases but not all researchers are aware of the cultural glasses they are wearing. These glasses include national value patterns. One pitfall has hardly been recognised, the effect of values in economic systems. In general terms one might say that the Anglo-Saxon system focuses on shareholder value and the Rhineland model on product and customer. For these reasons foreign, e.g. American, management models often fail if implemented lock, stock and barrel in e.g. the Netherlands or Poland.

The work by Dreimüller suffers from this problem because the author takes the Balanced Score Card, an American approach, as his starting point for outlining organisational cultures in the Netherlands. He does not question the applicability of the BSC outside the USA. However, his research and the one by Hofstede are the rare examples of the European approaches.

Our original idea was to relate the students and staff perceptions of the Polish university unit organisational culture and to compare this with the similar survey

conducted in the Dutch university unit. Practical consideration (time, permissions) prevented us from doing so and instead we made a study of limited scope but with differentiated ways of the tool usage. On this basis we may draw the following provisional conclusions concerning its utility:

- The questionnaire is just a starting point for much more detailed discussions; hence, it has a relative value. And even if all parties agree on the organisational culture, one needs to decide for what purpose and how this organisational culture will be used; better even if done so beforehand.
- A distinction between management, students, supporting staff, and lecturers is useful in view of the different roles these parties play and the need to optimise their interactions. Limiting the delineation of an organisational culture of a university to its staff, excluding students, considerably reduces the reliability and value of the results.
- Representative samples with large numbers of respondents are necessary conditions for the reliability of the outcome of the questionnaire (which, in turn, is only the first step).

Universities are a specific type of organisation. One may say that the two dimensions of Dreimüller are also two dilemmas for universities. On the one hand, a university is focused on control in terms of rigorous scientific experiments and the development of students, and on the other, on change in terms of ever-new developments that need to be taken into consideration. Internal points to the needs of having one's house in order (e.g. the academic quality) and external to the role of universities in societal debate. Indeed, from this perspective a university is a balancing act. The results of our survey give an impression of organisational cultures of the two analysed universities. As mentioned before, culture research is always biased with the researcher's set of values. Thus, the results gained in each unit may be also rationalised using a perspective of the researcher. In the case of the Polish university the researcher's perspective assumes that, like in the Deal/Kennedy framework, a university performs in a combination of low risk and long-term feedback. This is a dominant notion of specificity and the role played by the university in the Polish system and it implies the process culture type as predominant. Actually this type of culture was indeed identified in the Polish university unit. The Dutch concept of the university is reflected in the two tier structure, academic universities and universities of applied sciences. The former is focused on scientific research, more internal and control or process-culture. The latter focuses on preparing for specific jobs and should be more external and control or aim-culture. However, academic universities have more students than societal needs for scientists and hence, looks at other employment opportunities as well. At the same time universities of applied science are often used as a tool for higher education rather than the preparation for a job.

Our pilot study revealed both advantages and disadvantages of the Dreimüller's questionnaire. As such it may be considered as a contribution to the organisational culture studies and an introduction to further in-depth analyses. We plan to continue our investigation and hope to share the results in the future.

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Appendix

THE ORGANISATION	
R1	The organisation is
A	Familiar. The member do and share a lot with one another.
B	Dynamic. Risks are taken, entrepreneurship may be noticed.
C	Result oriented. The objective needs to be met and strong mutual competition occurs.
D	Structured, formal rules and procedures and strict management are characteristic.
R2	The organisation is mainly focused on
A	Collegiality, safety, transparency and involvement in the objective of the organisation.
B	Looking for, developing and implementing new things (products, clients and means).
C	Internal competition, aggression, realising objectives and winning.
D	Rules, procedures, efficient production and maintaining the status quo.
R3	The success of the organisation is determined by
A	Personnel development through involvement of and care for people.
B	The availability of unique, innovative, leading new products.
C	Being ahead of the competition and a larger market share.
D	Efficient, functional, reliable, cheap, well organised and controlled production.
R4	The organisation treats people in the organisation as
A	Family or friends who like being together and want to support one another.
B	Equals who unanimous aim at a common goals.
C	Means, which can be used by management.
D	Employees with a contract and mutual rights and duties.
THE MANAGEMENT	
R5	The management of the organisation
A	Guides, supports, stimulates, facilitates and cares for employees.

B	Shows entrepreneurship, takes risks and is focused on innovation and renewal.
C	Does not like nonsense, is aggressive and wants to realise objectives.
D	Arranges, is focused on the process, co-ordinates and streamlines production.
R6	The management is expected to
A	Be concerned for the employees and be aware of their needs.
B	Listen, to start the dialogue and to be open for ideas of employees.
C	Be strong and decisive, hard but just.
D	Is impersonal, manages only and does not aim for personal profit.
R7	The management focuses on
A	Strong mutual relations, team-work, consensus and participation.
B	Offering freedom, taking risk oneself for finding innovation.
C	External and internal competition, high demands, efforts and results.
D	Clarity, rules, regulations, procedures and stable relations.
R8	You may say to another what needs to happen if
A	The other has asked for help, guidance or advice.
B	You have more knowledge and experience.
C	You have a higher position.
D	It is mentioned in the job description.
THE PEOPLE	
R9	People need to give priority to
A	The common implementation of tasks and the mutual support in doing so.
B	The implementation of their task and finding better ways of doing that.
C	The assignments, questions and desires of their superiors.
D	The implementation of their tasks within the existing rules and procedures.

R10	People performing well are those who
A	Have a caring and co-operative attitude and work on good relations.
B	Are professionals and want to get the job done.
C	Know how they can use their power to satisfy their superior.
D	Implement their work within the system according to the prevalent rules.
R11	Employees are expected to
A	Good team players and have good contacts with one another.
B	Realise their tasks in a motivated and competent way and realise improvements accordingly.
C	Be hard working, obedient and loyal to the management.
D	Doing their job in a responsible and reliable way and preventing aberrations
R12	People are motivated by
A	The need for co-operation and the maintenance of good working relations.
B	Their own motivation, the wish to contribute and by thinking of improvements.
C	The hope of [extra] reward or the prevention of sanctions.
D	Expectation of a reasonable reward for a reasonable effort.
THE DECISION-MAKING	
R13	Decisions are
A	The result of agreement, acceptance and support by the employees.
B	Taken as much as possible at the lowest level by people on the work-floor.
C	Taken on the basis of orders and instructions by the management.
D	Fit within the agreed upon frameworks after going through the agreed upon procedures.
R14	If rules and procedures are getting in the way
A	People support one another by a wider interpretation of the rules and procedures.
B	They are neglected.

C	They are violated if one has the power to do so or does not expect punishment.
D	They are followed nevertheless or one requests to adapt the rules and procedures.
R15	The assignment of tasks or works is based upon
A	The personal preferences of the employee (career) and in consultation.
B	The mutual co-ordination of work and the qualities of the employee.
C	The judgement of the superior.
D	The plans of van the organisation in accordance with the existing rules.
R16	Conflicts are normally
A	Solved to maintain the good working atmosphere and without hurting people.
B	Solved by discussions, aimed at finding win-win solutions.
C	Solved by management.
D	Avoided by referring to rules, procedures and responsibilities



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The relativity of luxury - a luxury product from a perspective of Polish and foreign consumers

Abstract: Luxury product is a very ambiguous concept. The most commonly cited in the literature barrier to the creation of a universal definition of luxury is the relativity of the concept. The relativity of luxury nature of the product takes the form of regional, temporal, economic, cultural, situational, and also due to the individual characteristics of the consumer.

It should be therefore considered how to shape the product and which marketing tools should be used, to give and keep a luxury image of it. Analysis of the literature in the field of sciences such as management, sociology, psychology or marketing clearly indicates the growing interest in both the concept of luxury as well as luxury goods. It should be noted, however, that according to the results of research on the perception of luxury, consumers from different countries, cultures show different features of the product as important from the point of view of the luxury nature of the good.

The aim of article is identification of differences in the perception of luxury between consumers from different countries, representing different cultures, as well as the specifics of managing a luxury product depending on the country of its origin.

Key words: luxury, consumer, relativity

Introduction

Luxury, by virtue of its subjective nature, is defined in many different ways. This concept lies in the area of interest of many sciences such as sociology, economics, psychology, marketing. Representatives of the various disciplines expose in their definitions, characteristics important from the point of view of sciences which they represent. Thus, in the literature can be found many definitions of both the luxury and luxury product. Despite this strong interest of researchers, the idea of luxury is still a concept arousing numerous discussions. It turns out that the perception

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of luxury is being affected by a number of variables associated with the consumer and the way he sees luxury. According to the results of research on the perception of luxury, consumers from different countries, cultures show different features of the product as important from the point of view of the luxury nature of the good.

The main aim of the article is the identification of differences in the perception of luxurious nature of product between consumers from different countries, representing different cultures, as well as the specifics of managing a luxury product depending on the country of its origin.

The article contains an analysis of the literature concerning the essence of luxury products, sources of relativity of luxury, from the perspective of sciences such as economics, psychology, sociology, marketing. Considerations set out in the article are based primarily on foreign literature. It should be emphasized that the subject of luxury, is still described in a very narrow range in Polish literature.

An important point of the article is the analysis of the research conducted among consumers in other countries in the area of perception of luxury nature of the products. The author of article also attempts to identify the differences and similarities that exist in this area between Polish and foreign consumers. It should be noted, however, that in-depth understanding of the problem, requires initiation of own international research that is currently being prepared by the author of the article.

The problem of relativity of luxury and its impact on the knowledge of the essence of a luxury product

The most commonly cited in the literature barrier to the creation of a universal definition of luxury is the relativity of this concept. Definitions of luxury and luxury product presented in the literature are often ambiguous and therefore create a field for reasoned discussion. Unquestioned authority in the field of brand management J. N. Kapferer has treated the problem of luxury comprehensively, creating two definitions of luxury product. Based on an extensive literature study, J. N. Kapferer stated: „There is no single definition of luxury. Most of them do refer to well crafted, hedonistic and aesthetic objects, priced excessively above their functional utility, sold in exclusive stores delivering personal service and unique consumer experience, most often from a brand with history, heritage, the whole delivering a rare feeling of exclusivity” [Kapferer J., 2011, pp. 251-260]. This definition sets out the problem of luxury very comprehensively, but still, as the author observes leaves a degree of ambiguity. Luxury nowadays becomes more and more available, and the boundary between the mass and luxury is becoming less clear. Increasingly, luxury is not considered in the category of products, but brands. So dilemmas associated with luxury products are based on the question „what to have”, not as it once was „to have or not to have”. Therefore, J. Kapferer distinguishes two types of luxury, namely “absolute and relative luxury”. „Relative luxury” refers to the definition

provided above, which is based on subjective assessment of feelings, consumers' experiences, associated with acquired brand. Explaining the concept of „absolute luxury” author refers to the reality of the beginning of the last century: „At the beginning of the 20th century living in a mansion, with the latest comfort, driving a car, going skiing were in themselves sign of luxury [...]. No brand was needed at that time: this absolute luxury was by essence conspicuous, visible by all, walking in the streets of New York, or London or Paris or along the wharfs” [Scholz L., 2013, pp. 12-14].

This approach, however, still does not clarify the boundary between luxury and mass product. Therefore, it is necessary to indicate the wide and at the same time the specific context in which luxury is defined. According to L. Scholz proper definition of luxury requires the recognition of the socio-economic context. J. Kapferers' definition of „relative luxury” applies in affluent western society. On the other hand, the “absolute luxury” is located at a specific time, and only at this point the definition of luxury is correct. The conclusion from the above analysis is that, the relativity of luxury is not only due to the socio-economic context, but also refers for example to time.

K. Heine and T. Sikora recognize the multidimensional nature of the relativity of luxury. According to the authors, the relativity of the luxurious nature of the product has the regional, time, economic, cultural and situational form.

The source of regional relativity is the diversity of the local availability of specific products. Due to the rarity of the specific product in the region, it assumes the title of luxury. While in other parts of the world it is a widespread good, available to consumers with average incomes [Heine K., Sikora T., 2012, pp. 3].

Interesting results, clearly showing the specificity of regional relativity of luxury, were obtained from research conducted by Euromonitor International Analyst Pulse in May 2013. The study focused on the perception of luxurious character of cosmetic products brands, in regional breakdown. According to the study, for example, Chanel was seen as a luxury by all respondents from the Asia-Pacific region, while in the United States and Canada, 12% of respondents considered it as a mass.

General conclusions of the above-cited studies point to the fact that in developed markets, some brands are considered mass, while in the emerging markets the same brands are perceived as luxurious.

Time relativity refers to the perception of a luxury nature of the product, depending on the passage of time. Relativity is mainly due to the availability of product, and the degree of its desire at a certain time [Matsuyama K., 2002, pp. 1038], what is the consequence of dynamic changes in technology and social trends [Schiereck D., Königs A., 2006, pp. 2].

The perception of luxury nature of the product changes over time, the same as consumers' needs and desires change. Products which today are seen as luxury, for

some time can be common, mass products. On this basis, C. Berry defines luxury as a short-term, transient phenomenon. Maintaining the luxury image of the product, requires from the manufacturer the use of certain, very specific set of tools and resources, as well as constant monitoring of the needs and expectations of their customers [Berry C., 1994, pp. 41].

Whether the product will be perceived as a luxury or widespread, according to K. Heine and T. Sikora, may also depend on the situation. The more often the consumer is able to consume, or use certain products, the less luxurious to him they seem. Situational relativity can thus, for example, relate to the frequency of use of the product.

The most frequently mentioned factor influencing the perception of the luxurious nature of the product is the consumers' income. Economic relativity of luxury, *inter alia* refers to the disparities between the wealth of buyers, which ultimately translates to their purchasing power. Economic relativity may also be based on the differences in the economic development of particular regions of the world [Heine K., Sikora T., 2012, pp. 3]. Until recently, the Polish consumers were not a group of target audience for luxury goods. This resulted from both not enough high income of Poles and the low level of economic development of the country. For over twenty years, this market is growing extremely rapidly, however, [KPMG Report, 2010, pp. 15].

In contrast to the above-mentioned sources of relativity, cultural relativity does not have its grounding in the availability of products, but the extent of their desire. According to K. Heine and T. Sikora products, which in some cultures are luxurious in others may be common, or even undesirable. This situation may refer not only to the specific cultures taken as a whole but also of certain subcultures. According to D. Mortelmans [Mortelmans D., 2005, p. 497] "every social group has its own luxury". Particular cultures or subcultures have certain canons of good taste, liking, and hence views about the luxurious nature of the product.

It should be noted that apart from indicated by K. Heine and T. Sikora, sources of relativity of luxury, there are also factors such as basic demographic variables, namely age, sex, education, which also shape the perception of the luxurious nature of the product. The authors mention them by taking a reflection on the cultural relativity of luxury. It should be noted, however, that within certain cultures, the different age groups or representatives of specific gender may have a different attitude to the luxurious character of the same products.

Relativity of luxury can also be the result of specific psychological determinants, lifestyle of buyers. Certain products may be at the same time, place, situation, culture, and at a similar level of consumer income perceived as luxury or unnecessary, undesirable or common. On the one hand, it could be argued on the basis of considerations of K. Heine and T. Sikora, that the differences in the perception of

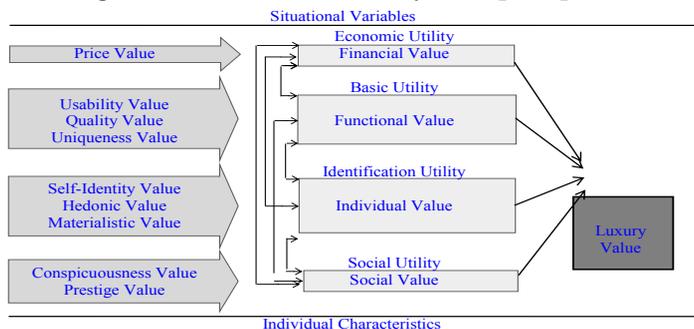
the luxurious nature of the product, comes from the cultural relativity, as it is the consequence of various degrees of desire of product. On the other, the source of relativity is a different lifestyle of these consumers.

Interesting approach to the determinants of the perception of luxurious nature of the product presents F. H. Seringhaus. According to the author perception of luxury is influenced by demographics, habit, lifestyle, social environment, and the marketers - in the opinion of F. H. Seringhaus: the purveyors of luxuries [Seringhaus F. H., 2002, pp. 4]. Although the author presents an incomplete picture of the problem, at the same time identifies the factor, not yet indicated as important for the perception of luxury which means the marketers.

In conclusion of the above considerations, it can be seen that the correct definition of luxury, and consequently luxury product requires clarification of the context in which the terms are considered. The perception of luxury is conditioned by many factors. It turns out that various social groups, different cultures, and even generations living in different periods of time have “their luxury”.

For the purposes of this article, a luxury product will be considered from the point of view of dimensions of luxury value perception. It is an interdisciplinary approach to the concept of luxury product. The perception of product value is based on both situational variables and individual characteristics of the consumer. The key dimensions of the perception of luxury product include financial, functional, personal and social value. These dimensions are strongly correlated with each other. Their comprehensive range is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Dimensions of luxury value perceptions



Source: [own work on basis: Hennigs N., Wiedmann K. P., Klarmann Ch. (2012), pp. 32].

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The perception of luxurious nature of the product from the perspective of manufacturers of luxury goods.

One of the essential elements of luxury brand is its origin. Many companies in the sector of luxury, position their brands in a strong relationship with the country of their birth [Chevalier M., Mazzalovo G., 2008, pp. 185, Money R. B., Colton D., 2000, pp. 189 – 205, Oetzel J., Doh J. P., 2009, pp. 108 – 120]. The origin of the brand has also a strong influence on the strategies of shaping brand image in the consumers' minds. Manufacturers of luxury goods often stress their roots. On the one hand, they want to keep a unified image, consistent with the rules created at the inception of the brand. On the other hand, they want to reach a specific group of buyers who prefer brands with specific roots.

It must therefore be noted that the relativity of luxury has its roots not only in the specific characteristics of the consumer, but also the different strategies of manufacturers from different countries. So it seems important to gain knowledge about determinants of luxurious nature of the product, including those created by the manufacturers.

A rich source of knowledge in this field, may be experience of companies belonging to the elite organizations associating producers of luxury goods, as well as the requirements and rules imposed to new members of these organizations. The oldest and also the most rapidly changing organization of this type is founded in 1954 in France Comite Colbert associating major French luxury brands, and dedicated to the promotion of these brands in global markets [<http://www.comitecolbert.com/histoire.html>, (05 October 2014)].

The main objective of the association, has always been uniting the French luxury goods manufacturers, encouraging to the export of these goods, promoting the sharing of knowledge on luxury craft. Comite Colbert setting the canons of luxury, requires of its members fulfilling four basic conditions, their products must be characterized by: international ambition and strong cultural identity, high quality standards, creativity, imagination and ethical conduct [http://www.comitecolbert.com/les_maisons.html, (06 October 2014)]. Comite Colbert puts the particular emphasis on strong relationships of its members with culture. In addition, as the only organization of this kind requires ethical conduct. A very interesting fact is that, until recently, Comite Colbert has placed completely different demands on its members, such as: high price, strong brand associated with exclusive life style, very high quality and design at the highest level. As can be seen, the organization remains consistent, in the matter of the high quality of products. One should notice, that existing requirements of the organization, reflect to essential marketing principles of luxury goods. New requirements attest the fact that Comite Colbert is heading with the spirit of the times. The strong emphasis is being put on the creativity, imagination.

An Altgamma Foundation, consisting of Italian producers of luxury goods is an organization considerably younger than Comite Colbert (formed in 1992), although acting in very active and creative way. According to the statute of association, Altgamma is aspiring to establish the primacy of an Italian lifestyle and the culture worldwide, through support and the promotion of the best artistic, cultural and industrial quality of country. Stressing in particular the quality, innovation, design, prestige and high standards of service as distinguishing features of Italian products, culture and art [<http://www.altgamma.it/sezione2.php?Id=2&Lingua=ing> (10 October 2014)].

Apart from Altgamma and Comite Colbert on the Euromarket there are also functioning British, Spanish and German associations. British Walpole came into existence in 1990. The main objective of the organization is promotion of British luxury brands in the world. Thanks to the membership in Walpole enterprises have also a chance for the exchange of experiences, of knowledge in managing the luxury brand. Walpole demands high standards of its members in the scope of quality, style, design, craftsmanship, creativity, services and innovations.

German Meisterkreis established in 2011 is the youngest organization consisting of producers of luxury goods. Meisterkreis sets before its members the most stringent conditions, including the financial results and the duration of existence on the market. In accordance with the requirements of organization luxury brand must:

- represent the highest standards in terms of quality, design, service, creativity and innovation, craftsmanship
- enjoy an outstanding reputation
- has been present in Germany for at least 3 years
- achieve minimum turnover rate in Germany is 5 million euros.
- be positioned at the top price segments of its category
- be managed in Germany by an independent organization
- comply with the basic principles of selective distribution
- share and actively supports the philosophy, mission and goals of the Meisterkreis.

[<http://www.meisterkreis-germany.com/en/members/admissions-criteria> (10 October 2014)]

It should be noted that from the point of view of the representatives of the finest luxury brands associated in the above-mentioned organizations, the most important features of luxury brands are the highest standards of quality, craftsmanship and design. All organizations require from members also innovation.

Demands which organizations of producers of luxury goods place on their members can be a determinant in shaping the identity of the brand of luxury companies operating in this highly specific market. Luxury product, however, must first and foremost meet the very sophisticated and specific needs of its consumers. Although the requirements of associations of finest luxury brands are similar, it appears that the requirements of their buyers often differ significantly. Therefore,

the luxury goods manufacturers, wanting to adjust to the changing expectations of consumers, diversify their offer, use different marketing tools for the individual segments.

How do luxury value perceptions differ across countries?

The results of numerous international studies confirm the fact that the perception of the luxurious nature of the product varies from country to country. Researchers in recent years have recognized that theoretical models of consumers behavior of luxury goods in a particular country, can not perform in other countries [Hofstede G., Hofstede G. J. (2004), pp. 25 - 28, Hult G. T. M., Keillor B. D., Hightower R. (2000), pp. 206 - 220, Tynan C., McKechine S., Chhuon C. (2010), pp. 1156 – 1263].

Researches in this area, most often are based on division of: developed markets including United States, Japan, United Kingdom and emerging markets such as China, Brazil, India, Russia [Dubois B., Czellar S., Laurent G. (2005), pp. 115 – 128, Shukla P. (2010), pp. 108 – 129, Wiedmann K. P., Hennings N., Siebels A. (2009), pp. 625 – 651, Wiedmann K. P., Hennings N., Siebels A. (2009), pp. 625 - 651], or Asian and Western societies [Wang P. Z., Waller D. S., (2006), pp. 665 – 687, Wong N. Y., Ahuvia A. C. (1998), pp. 423 – 441].

Previous studies have shown significant differences in the perception of the luxurious nature of goods between the Eastern and Western cultures [Podoshen J. S., Li L., Zhang J. (2011), pp. 17 – 25 2011, Shukla P. (2010), pp. 108 - 129, Tsai S. P. (2005), pp. 177 – 206]. It was noted also, that the relativity of luxurious nature of the product may result in a lesser degree from cultural differences in individual market segments than from cross-national context. It absolutely does not change the fact that culture has an impact on the relativity of perception of luxury. According to the researches of Laurent and Dubois (1994) conducted in France and Tidwell and Dubois (1996) in Australia, the culture does influence the perception of luxury [Tidwell P., Dubois B. (1996), pp. 31 – 35].

In the literature, can be found many researches based on a comparison of the perception of luxurious character of the product in two selected countries. One of such studies was conducted in India (a developing, Eastern, collectivist and rapidly growing luxury market) and the UK (developed, Western, individualist and mature luxury market). Author of the study analyzed the four-element model of luxury value perception including financial, individual, social and functional value dimension. The results show not only significant differences but also many similarities in the perception of luxury nature of the product in those countries. Consumers in the UK as well as from India, purchase luxury goods to manifest their superior image in the eyes of others (social value dimension). At the same time it was noted that Indian consumers look for fitting - in behavior, more than the Brits, and their consumption depends on social acceptance [Shukla P. (2011), pp. 242-52].

It was also noted, that for British consumers, information and opinions of other consumers about luxury goods are less important than for the Indian consumers. British consumers are seen as strong individualists. Therefore, the opinion of others about luxury product is for them less important than, for example, the brand origin (individual value dimension). According to cited research, consumers in developed countries rely more on brand origin cues than in developing markets. At the same time, there was also detected in research, a very strong effect of brand image on consumers' purchasing decisions of both countries. Consumers want to have a brand which image is synonymous with the image of social group they wish to associate with.

Studies on a larger scale were carried out by the researchers: N. Hennings, K. P. Wiedmann, Ch. Klarmann, S. Strehlau, B. Godey, D. Pederzoli, A. Neulinger, K. Dave, G. Aiello, R. Donvito, K. Taro, J. Taborecka – Petrovicova, C. Rodriguea Santos, J. Jung, H. Oh. The authors conducted a survey on consumers in Brazil, France, Germany, Hungary, India, Italy, Japan, Slovakia, Spain, United States and other countries, total 1275 respondents. Like in case of the previously described study, authors have tested the perception of luxury product in terms of its financial, functional, individual and social value dimension [N. Hennings, K. P. Wiedmann, Ch. Klarmann, et.al, (2012), pp. 1018 – 1034].

In case of consumers from Germany and United States, financial aspects do not affect the perception of the luxurious nature of the product. In case of the factors that make up the financial dimension value, there were noted significant differences between the American and French consumers. According to French consumers, luxury should be available only for selected groups of consumers, and only at certain points of sale. While Americans believe that luxury products are not in contradiction with mass production.

In the case of functional value dimension, there were also revealed significant differences among the surveyed countries. German consumers attach great importance to quality and performance aspects. According to Germans' perception of luxury, luxury brand should primarily represent the highest quality. Whether it is desired by other consumers, is no longer crucial. Those consumers put quality over prestige when considering the purchase of a luxury brand.

With respect to the individual dimension focusing on self-pleasure and materialistic aspects of luxury consumption, for American consumers followed by India, Brazil and Italy the most important are hedonic, affective and materialistic aspects of luxury consumption. Spanish consumers in the slightest are guided by hedonism while making purchase decisions. At the same time, in the case of social dimension emphasizing prestige and opinions of others, Spanish and Italian consumers are not concerned about what other think of them. In the same area, Indian consumers attach great importance to the opinion of other consumers about luxury brands character. The individual dimension is also important for them.

The cited studies clearly showed the significant cross-cultural differences between the luxury value dimensions as perceived by consumers from different countries. The perception of luxury is dependent on many factors, which at the same time, have a different level of significance in different countries.

At this point, it should be considered, how the Polish consumers perceive luxury and what are their requirements for a luxury product. According to the KPMG study from 2013, the vast majority of Polish consumers (89%) consider the luxurious character of product from the perspective of its high quality. So it turns out, that Polish consumers, like German, consider the functional value dimension as the most important characteristic of a luxury product. For over half of the consumers, luxury product is associated with prestige (61%). Social value dimension of luxury product for Polish consumers, is just as important as for the Indian consumers.

The financial value dimension of luxury value perception, focusing on price of luxury products is regarded important by half of polish consumers. Comparing the results of polish research in this area with research of foreign consumers it can be seen that once again the Polish consumer has a similar attitude towards luxury to the attitudes of the representatives of developed countries such as France, Hungary, Italy, Brazil and Slovakia.

A very interesting conclusion from the research undertaken by N. Henning et al, is segmentation of the consumers of luxury goods based on luxury value perception. The authors divided the consumers of luxury goods into the following four categories:

- *The Luxury Lovers* - consumers who believe that luxury goods are exclusive, guarantee their uniqueness and cannot be mass-produced (primarily consists of the U.S., Indian, Hungarian, and Brazilian consumers);
- *The Status-Seeking Hedonists* - consumers who focus on self-satisfaction and pleasure and less on the price and quality values of luxury goods (the U.S., Indian, Japanese, and Brazilian consumers);
- *The Satisfied Unpretentious* - consumers who emphasize quality assurance over prestige and is less focused on impressing others (Spanish, Hungarian, Slovakian consumers); and
- *The Rational Functionalists* - consumers who value performance of a luxury brand more than the opinions of others (the U.S. and German consumers) [N. Hennings, K. P. Wiedmann, Ch. Klarmann, et.al, (2012), pp. 1028 – 1030].

Unambiguous indication of the Polish consumer in so constructed segmentation is not possible. But it is possible to find common characteristics of Polish consumers and consumers belonging to the so-designated segments. Closest to the Polish consumer way of perception of luxury represent The Satisfied Unpretentious. For consumers in this segment the most important factor in the perception of luxury is quality. In the biggest contradiction with the approach of the Polish consumer to

factors relevant to the perception of luxury product, are standing representatives of the segment "Status - Seeking Hedonists".

Final remarks

The correct definition of luxury, and consequently luxury product requires clarification of the context in which the terms are considered. The perception of luxury is conditioned by many factors. It turns out that various social groups, different cultures, and even generations living in different periods of time have "their own luxury". Researchers on the base of numerous studies have recognized that theoretical models of luxury goods consumers behavior in a particular country, can not perform in other countries.

There have been found significant differences in the perception of the luxurious nature of goods between the Eastern and Western cultures, developed markets including United States, Japan, United Kingdom and emerging markets such as China, Brazil, India, Russia. There are also conducted studies based on comparison of approach of two selected countries to the concept of luxury and its main characteristics.

So far, none of this type of comparative studies included Polish consumers. It seems reasonable to identify factors important in the case of Polish consumers perception of the luxury nature of goods. Identification of these factors provides a basis for further comparative international research in this area. The author recognizes the important research gaps, precisely in terms of similarities and differences in the Polish and foreign consumers perception of luxury. The previous theoretical considerations undertaken by the author of the article in terms of luxury products are to be the basis for planned by the author, international comparative research of perception of luxury nature of the products.

However, taking into account the results of research on Polish consumers perception of luxury, there can be found some similarities and differences between the approach of Polish and foreign consumers. Comparing the results of polish research in this area with research of foreign consumers it can be seen that the Polish consumer has a similar attitude towards luxury to the attitudes of the representatives of developed countries such as France, Hungary, Italy, Brazil and Slovakia. For these consumers the most important factor in the perception of luxury is quality. In the biggest contradiction with the approach of the Polish consumer to factors relevant to the perception of luxury product, are standing U.S., Indian, Japanese, and Brazilian consumers.

It should be noted that such a large discrepancy in the way of perception of the luxury for consumers from different countries, is the enormous challenge for the manufacturers of luxury goods. Meeting such diverse consumer demands is forcing manufacturers to adapt their marketing strategies to the corresponding segments of the market.

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Tourism habits and preferences – comparative analysis in selected European countries

Abstract: Tourism is an important sector of the economy, which is responsible for the development of many regions, which generates millions of jobs and allows to operate several businesses. However, it must be remembered that the motives of the trips are strongly differentiated, which translates into the existence of many types of tourism and diversification of tourism products. As a consequence, it becomes necessary to conduct permanent monitoring of attitudes, motives and consumers behaviors in order to adapt the offer to their preferences. In the article, the author, presenting the specificity of tourism shows the results of the study dedicated to selected tourist behaviors of Polish, Ukrainian and Austrian students. Even, if the limitations of the study will be accepted, it provides evidence for positive verification of the hypothesis that the significant differences between these groups exist.

Key-words: tourism, consumer behaviours, tourism product

Introduction

Tourism is a significant element of the economy worldwide; for numerous regions or countries it serves as an important source of income, setting the stage for development. S. Bosiacki even writes that "tourism in the 21st century has become one of the most powerful sectors of the global economy, having tremendous importance for the transformation process, a form of spending leisure time for millions of people." (Bosiacki S. et al. 2008, pp. 53-54). Whereas K. Hannam and D. Knox highlight that tourism has become a key issue in supranational, national and regional development programmes (2010, p20). Yet, J. Kaczmarek, A. Stasiak, B. Włodarczyk refer to the example of the fuel industry or cutting-edge technologies bringing the focus to comparability of income generated (2010, p. 9).

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Quotations implying the remarkable significance of tourism may proliferate. After all, these opinions are validated by the facts. According to data provided by the World Tourism Organization the economic sector discussed tends to account for 9% of global GDP, generating 10% workplace and making up a total of 6% of the global export. Furthermore, 2013 saw 1087 million international tourist arrivals (as compared to 25 million in 1950) and domestic arrivals spanning from 5 up to 6 billion (UNWTO...2014, p. 2). Across the European Union an average share of tourism in GDP is estimated at around 5% (Panasiuk A, 2014, p. 21).

Tourism generates income, though it is also closely connected with other economic sectors, thereby profoundly affecting them, and thus revealing its weight as well as its specifics. The World Tourism Organization recommends to include 10 from among 17 economic sectors into the broadly understood tourism economy (Meyer B., 2008, p. 16). Such an extensive approach to the visitor economy results from the essential aspects of tourism, which emanate from the specifics of the tourism product.

The strong role played by tourism in present day economy makes it expedient to seek any possibilities for stimulating its growth. Analysing consumer behaviour preferences tends to be one of the elements of enhancing competitiveness across tourist regions. The study presented falls into this field. The objective set by the author is to examine selected elements of behaviour related to tourism consumption among three groups of students: Polish, Ukrainian and Austrian. Accomplishment of the objective entailed establishing a research hypothesis addressing significant differences occurred among three groups surveyed. The paper structure appeared to the consequence of the objective and hypothesis set. In its theoretical part, the author attempted to give an insight into specifics of the tourism product, which then affects tourists' behaviour. The empirical part of the paper reveals the findings from the survey questionnaire conducted in 2014 among three students' groups previously indicated.

Tourism products and tourists – their essence and specifics

The literature features numerous definitions of tourism. For instance, the British Tourism Society coined a definition asserting that “tourism embraces all activities referred to the temporary, short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and work, and staying in these visited places” (Gaworecki W., 2007, p. 18). Over recent time prominence was given to the approach based on the recommendations of the World Tourism Organization (Terminology..., 1995, pp. 3-4). According to these guidelines, S. McCabe defines tourism as the “sum of relations and phenomena resulting from activities of persons travelling and staying outside their place of residence for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business or other purposes” (2010, p. 2). In essence, the

definition places a consumer-tourist at the centre of tourism who then appears to be a creator of activity and relationship, yet the approach displayed broadly addresses the motives behind travels and types of tourism activities.

What is more important for demonstrating the characteristics of tourism is exposure of the specifics inherent to a tourism product. Basically, reference literature shows two approaches to the issue. A tourism product may be regarded, in the narrow sense, as a service or goods offered by an individual entrepreneur, however for the purposes of the paper it is preferable to present a tourism product from a broad perspective as a tourism destination. To put it simply, it may be defined as any attractions and services likely to be sold to a visitor (Sung K., 2013, pp. 8-9). Whereas E. Kiralova illustrates the structure of the product in a schematic manner identifying its two spheres: a basic tourism offer completing a full tourism offer (Kiralova E., 2003, p. 88 as cited in Gryzel P., 2004 p. 25). The first comes as a result of the attractiveness of the region in which attractions were typified into three groups: environmental, anthropogenic as well as parties together with social and cultural events. It should be underlined that this part of the regional tourism product principally arouses tourists' interest in the destination, yet an urge to harness the attractions encourages them to willingly visit a specific destination. As noted by C. Vassiliadis creating attractive tourism products is crucial for stability of the local, national and European economies (2008, p. 440).

Meanwhile, a complementary tourism offer, which is the other component of the tourism region's product, come as the benefit of the infrastructure present in the area and determines the convenience of staying, and thus largely consumer satisfaction. It is relatively easy to imagine a situation when a tourist is dissatisfied with their stay and fails to give recommendations for a specific destination in the case where, despite remarkable attractiveness of the area, there are an accommodation base and restaurants that fall short of expected standards, and where it is difficult to reach a particular destination.

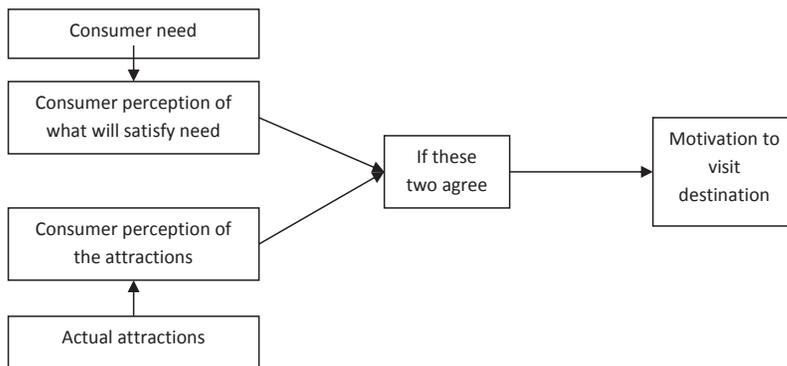
Core to assessing the specifics underlying a tourism product is recognition of its immense complexity, which is a component of multiple variables related to both the attractiveness as well as the services rendered across a specific area: services targeted towards a tourist. It should be stressed that particular elements of the tourism product of the destination are created by a great number of independent entities. In such a situation this becomes a product difficult to be managed, and the key to its development is close cooperation among its stakeholders which, as proven by practice, remains difficult to attain.

Management of the region's tourism product, to put it simply, may be boiled down to its creation so as to generate value to buyers, which may thus result in triggering interest in it, purchasing it and finally delivering satisfaction with the purchase. However, the complexity of the product discussed allows that its varied

elements have diverse relevance for individual tourists, and moreover, in particular target groups there are various expectations towards the same product's elements. For instance W. Gaworecki designates 18 various types of tourism, each with its own specifics and related expectations (2007, pp. 23-88). Essentially, it is practically unlikely for destination management to fulfil all expectations, thereby impelling persons and entities charged with destination's development to make choices.

Figure 1 provides a simplified model illustrating a process of creating motivation for visiting a specific destination. J. Holloway gives priority to the consumer's needs which consequences include a perception of the means for their fulfilment as well as destination's attractions and their assessment. In the situation when a potential tourist recognises that the attractions allow for meeting their needs, the motivation to visit a destination occurs. The above model constitutes a certain simplification of the reality which was its goal, though it should be remembered that attractions as well as consumers' needs tend to be diversified, and thus it is often unlikely to attain complete compatibility. Sam J. Holloway emphasizes that frequently consumers themselves are not aware of their needs, thereby making it difficult to prepare a product for their fulfilment (2002, p. 65).

Fig. 1. Motivation process on the tourism market



Source: J. Holloway, *The business of tourism*, Pearson Education, Harlow 2002, p. 66

As mentioned previously, tourism and related activities generate the demand for tourism products as they deliver specific values to clients. From the standpoint of the managing person it is important that values are highly diversified, which is closely related to the diversification of the tourism product as well motives and forms of tourism activities. Reference literature stresses that travels are driven by a wide range of factors. For example C. Cooper, J. Fletcher, D. Gilbert, S. Wanhill classify them into two groups. The first includes factors connected with a life style: income, employment, travelling opportunities, education and mobility. Whereas

the second is an effect of the life cycle: age, household conditions or family ties (1998, p. 40 as cited in Kizielewicz J., 2014, p. 289).

From the perspective of ongoing deliberations, core to the effective tourism destination management proves to be identification of tourists' habits, preferences or motives behind their behaviour and shopping (Celtek E., 2013, p. 6). P. van der Merve, E. Slabbert and M. Saayman even argue that it becomes imperative to precede destination marketing actions with an analysis of tourists-consumers' motives. Only integration of their preferences may yield a long-lasting success (2011, p. 458). The same authors provide a fairly detailed overview of research on travelling motivating elements, and moreover they indicate preferences for travelling in one single coherent compilation: holiday, in areas valued in environmental terms, on seaside coasts, those related with events, and shopping (2011, p. 460).

Methodology of research

The study seeks to identify tourists' preferences and their consumption style, and its findings will be revealed below. A research group was represented by a specific consumer's community comprising students. An overruling objective of the study was to compare preferences among Polish and Ukrainian students as well as students from Austria. It may be assumed that student communities share certain characteristic attributes which should emerge in the style of tourism. It seems that three of them are primary:

- a student is a young person – the fact explicitly translates into preferences or consumption patterns, such a person more willingly make use of cutting-edge technologies, e.g. for communication (it needs to be considered in the marketing communication), prefers active forms of leisure, or integration with peers will be relatively of larger importance;
- a student has a large quantity of time – it is a significant quantity, but at the same time it is largely limited to semester holidays, in summer a 3-month travel is available, without being constrained with a holiday leave or work obligations, young persons have less family obligations;
- a student has a smaller budget and smaller expectations – young persons are at the beginning of their professional career paths, and thereby earning less, or they only receive funds from their parents, at the same time they attach less weight to comfort while travelling or staying.

The study covered three groups of students: Polish, Ukrainians and those in Austria. An assumption was adopted that these communities will be diversified due to income (determining opportunities for tourism) and tourism habits. An overriding objective of the study was to identify selected preferences and purchasing behaviours across three students' groups, and the research hypothesis held that habits are diverse depending on the place and origins of the students.

Table 1: Age and place of residency

Age	Ukraine	Poland	Austria
Below 25 years	90%	72%	91%
25 – 35 years	7%	16%	9%
36 – 55 years	3%	12%	0%
Above 55 years	0%	0%	0%
Place of residency			
Country	10%	23%	8%
Town below 10.000	10%	10%	12%
Town 10.000 – 100.000.	28%	25%	32%
City above 100,000	52%	42%	50%

Source: Own study based on the survey completed

Ultimately the research yielded responses from 83 Polish and 42 Ukrainian students as well as 108 students from Austria, which brought the number of survey questionnaires properly completed to the total of 233. The survey conducted in the first half of 2014 among students at economic faculties. Characteristics of respondents may be an important element having an impact on the research findings. Importantly, all three groups have a structure that is internally comparative. In the case of Polish students only certain deviations may be discerned. First, percentage of persons aged below 25 is smaller, still this is a prevailing group, and a higher average age among Polish students is linked to the fact that there is a high number of part-time students in Poland, persons that enrol to studies few years after graduating school. Second, as regards Polish students, a smaller percentage indicated a big city as its place of residence, while more respondents pointed out a country. It appears that some persons indicating a country as their place of residence actually live on the outskirts of the large city, which is typical, specifically for Warsaw agglomeration where portion of the survey took place. Therefore, it may be assumed that a portion of 23% Polish respondents coming from a country reveal consumer behaviours distinctive for inhabitants of large cities, which leads to the presumption that persons surveyed share far more similar characteristics than evidenced in the compilation.

Findings and conclusions

The first question to be answered in the survey inquired about forms of using free time during tourism travels (see Table 2). To find a response to the question is particularly significant for those managing a region or a tourism company. Having realized that, marketing specialists know which information should be emphasized

in the promoting message, and which elements of the product should be further developed so that an offer could satisfy expectations of the specific target group.

Table 2. Forms of using free time during tourism travels

	Ukraine	Poland	Austria
Visiting museums, exhibitions	67%	33%	49%
Shopping	52%	43%	54%
Attending festivals	24%	23%	12%
Relaxing on beach	52%	77%	58%
Testing local food	62%	72%	73%
Active night life	60%	48%	43%
Practising sport	26%	33%	29%
Exploring wildlife	31%	41%	20%
Visiting historical monuments	64%	63%	60%
Participating in sport events	9%	10%	12%
Buying souvenirs	57%	54%	64%

Source: Own study based on the survey completed

Notice: The highest scores in particular categories were bolded.

Topping the list were: visiting historical monuments, relaxing on the beach and trying local food. A high position of the last element comes as a surprise. Although culinary tourism has been gaining in popularity, it is still not a form of massive tourism. The results scored suggests that those managing tourism have to take into account this activity form. Yet definitely the lowest score was given to participation in sport events. As regards two countries hosting the Euro 2012 such an indication may take by surprise, but as the results obtained show the respondents in any country fail to follow their idols to support them on a massive scale.

It is worthwhile bringing the focus to the principal issues from the perspective of the research hypothesis adopted. It is likely to observe considerable distinctions among specific countries. Regarding Ukraine, more individuals pointed out visiting museum, exhibitions and an active night life. Whereas Polish students far more willingly relax on the beach (for this category it should be kept in mind that Austria has no access to sea) and explore wildlife. With reference to the last form reported, attention should be given to low rank in Austria, even though this is a country where wildlife attractions are central to plans for tourism expansion. Mean-

while in this country shopping and purchase of souvenirs notched up the highest score among three groups of respondents. Principally, it seems that an upper hand, though insignificant, in this respect is the effect of higher income in Austria as compared to other states.

Selection of key factors guiding travel decisions expounds the forms of using free time. Their identification, likewise for the previous question, reveals the offer's elements to be further bolstered and emphasized in the process of communication with potential clients. Key factors for students in specific countries were detailed in Table 3.

Table 3. Assessment of factors when making travelling decisions

Factor	Ukraine	Poland	Austria
Possibility of practising various sport disciplines, related infrastructure	2.44	2,38	3.3
Architectural buildings, museums	3.44	2.79	3
Special events, festivals	3.1	2.83	2.78
Easy access	3.24	3.77	3.35
Presence of places of religious merit	2.27	1.69	1.5
Destination brand (famous, popular)	2.85	2.35	2.32
Quality of accommodation base	3.95	4.08	3.81
Travel costs	4.24	4.36	4.25
Quality and access to shops	3.56	3.3	2.85
Variety of holiday-recreation offer (swimming pools, cinema, parks, children's playgrounds)	4	3.78	3.38
Quality and effectiveness of local transport	3.73	3.14	3.07
Easy access to attractive spots	4.15	4.22	3.22
Climate	4.17	4.31	3.79
Quality of catering	3.41	3.8	3.36

Folk art on a specific area	3.02	2.14	2.11
Natural assets (wild-life)	4	3.58	3.15
Clubs, theme parks	3.88	3.35	3.10

Source: Own study based on the survey conducted

Notice: Respondents assessed the significance of specific factors within the scale 1-5. The highest scores in particular categories were bolded.

It should not come as a surprise that among all communities surveyed a cost factor received the top rank. Moreover, considerable importance is attached to the quality of the accommodation base, easy access to attractive places or a factor being outside the control of destination managers – the climate. Nevertheless, the significant fact is that substantial distinctions among specific respondents' groups emerged in responses to the questions addressed, with these disparities being markedly larger than for the forms of spending leisure time during travels. Some distinctions may be ascribed to the sample size or its sampling, though differences stretched to several dozen percentage points among ratings are so considerable as to be taken into account.

First, it should be underlined that generally Polish and Ukrainian students attributed a higher importance to specific factors than students based in Austria. Merely in one case out of seventeen a did a highest rank came from this country and it was: the possibility of practising sports. It is worthwhile emphasizing the fact that that factor attained an immense advantage, which may be important information on the issues concerning spending leisure time. While Ukrainian students granted substantially higher rating for: quality and easy access to shops, quality and effectiveness of transport, wildlife assets or clubs and theme parks. These scores could suggest that this group of respondents express the highest requirements. However, as proved by the experience, requirements grow alongside the increase in income and financial potentials. Meanwhile, as said previously, Ukraine is a country reporting a lower income than Poland, and especially lower than Austria. It seems that these distinctions may be clarified in another way. Across all categories the lowest scores were granted by students in Austria. Overall, it may be assumed that higher quality standards prevail in this country as well as in students' destination countries, and thus certain product parameters may be taken for granted, and as a consequence they are not indicated as a decisive factor.

Another vital issue for the tourism are consumers buying habits, which is particularly manifested by the use of intermediaries. Information in this regard proves to be crucial from the perspective of designing distribution channels and related

promotional activities. Responses provided by the respondents in this respect are shown in Table 4. What is surprising is that intermediaries are mostly used when booking an accommodation; based on previous analyses it could look as if preference was given to “travel packages”. It should be highlighted that the question did not distinguish between national and international travels, and it may be assumed that buying habits for both travel types are dissimilar and that intermediaries play a bigger part in international tourism. Importantly, responses to the questions raised reveal distinctions between individual students’ groups. Specifically, focus should be placed on the rating given by students in Austria exposing greatest use of intermediaries while booking flight tickets, and a scanty percentage of persons within the same group who would report that they always purchase travel packages. The ratings in the latter case may imply a higher independence in exercising tourism, and, besides, they are, to some extent, compensated by the highest percentage of ratings in the category “I sometimes purchase a travel package”, though the ratings in the first case are hard to be explained. It is likely that direct purchase by the Internet, though with the use of global reservation systems could be regarded by some respondents as intermediary operations unlike the Polish and Ukrainian respondents. Another potential explanation, as evidenced by the respondents’ travel destinations, concerns the fact that Polish and Ukrainian students travel a far shorter distances, and possibly the majority of them do not use air transport, and therefore they failed to indicate intermediary in buying a ticket.

Table 4. Use of intermediaries

	Ukraine	Poland	Austria
I always buy flight tickets through intermediary	14%	8%	29%
I sometimes buy flight tickets through intermediary	19%	22%	44%
I always buy railway/bus tickets through intermediary	14%	6%	10%
I always buy a whole travel package	24%	29%	7%
I always book accommodation through intermediary	24%	17%	31%
I sometimes book accommodation through intermediary	38%	26%	38%

I sometimes buy railway/bus tickets through intermediary	9%	20%	19%
I sometimes buy a whole travel package	14%	23%	31%

Source: Own study based on the survey conducted

Notice: The highest scores in particular categories were bolded.

A central issue in the context of selling any product is its appropriate promotion. Currently a marketing communication using Internet gains in importance within the group surveyed in terms of tourism. Therefore, the survey exploring tourism habits needed to address the question concerned with the issue. The responses provided were set out in Table 5.

Table 5. Use of specific internet tools

	Ukraine	Poland	Austria
Website of the region's attractions	48%	46%	47%
Website of the accommodation facility	45%	83%	67%
Discussion forums – searching for extra information and recommendations	33%	49%	31%
I seek for information on tourism portals, e.g. globtrotter	38%	17%	26%
I use group buying websites	5%	16%	7%
Tourism blogs	50%	13%	19%
I buy flight tickets on-line	48%	22%	58%
I use the services of reservation intermediaries, e.g. booking.com	29%	22%	42%
Internet mail – communication to receive extra information	29%	13%	28%
I use facebook profile of the tourism region (location)	19%	18%	19%

I use facebook profile of the of the accommodation facility	14%	23%	17%
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Source: Own study based on the survey conducted

Notice: The highest scores in particular categories were bolded.

As can be seen from the results a tool mostly used is a website of the accommodation facility. However, it is worthwhile mentioning that first strong differences between specific groups of respondents occur in this question, and second the findings obtained may be connected with responses to the previous question. It can be seen from the data in Table 4 that the most persons reported that they make use of intermediaries while booking accommodation. Meanwhile definitely the highest number of individuals access websites of accommodation facilities, which suggests a vast independence in selecting reservation facilities. Yet, the most students in Austria pointed out intermediaries when buying flight tickets, and at the same time definitely more individuals from that country than from other countries indicated the use of Internet to this end, which may corroborate the previous suggestion that this group is likely to regard the purchase through the Internet as an intermediary.

As previously emphasized, vast differences in the use of Internet occur among the respondents. Predominantly, widespread use of discussion forums by Polish respondents, tourism blogs by Ukrainian students and reservation systems by those surveyed in Austria should receive attention. Specifically the last tool should be brought into focus, as its use appears to be increasing, which then should be considered by the managers of accommodation facilities.

Table 6. Barriers constraining travelling opportunities

Barrier	Ukraine	Poland	Austria
No money	83%	76%	74%
Household obligations	12%	25%	30%
Health condition	7%	6%	7%
Professional obligations	26%	43%	32%
No desire to travel	12%	4%	4%
No holiday leave	31%	29%	28%
I rested in the place of residency	2%	14%	8%

Source: Own study based on the survey conducted

Notice: The highest scores in particular categories were bolded.

The last element surveyed was constraint travelling opportunities (Table 6). It should not come as a surprise, particularly considering sampling, that no money garnered highest scores. Students as a group have free time in their disposal, though they largely do not work. This barrier affects the Ukrainian group more than Polish or Austrian respondents. In the compilation outlined two issues should receive attention, they appear to be tremendously significant, and they reveal differences across groups under survey. In the group of the Ukrainian respondents constraints concerned with household obligations and professional obligations are less marked. Regarding the latter barrier it comes into the foreground in the Polish group. Principally, it may be ascribed to the higher average age among Polish respondents, and thus taking a professional job. Furthermore, it is apparent that Polish students generally begin their work sooner. Remaining barriers occur more seldom, and even when strong percentage differences emerge among respondents' groups they have weaker implications for the tourism demand.

Findings and discussion

Certainly tourism should be regarded as a significant economic sector, and its role in triggering economic growth across numerous regions should be appreciated. At the same time it should be kept in mind that, as shown above, in practice there are highly diversified tourism forms driven by multiple motives and varied consumer-tourist preferences. As a consequence the immense diversity of stimulants propelling tourism demand flourish, thereby strongly affecting and diversifying tourism products.

Tourism managers as well as those charged with creating demand for services of a specific enterprise need to take hold of this diversity in their operations at a national, regional and local level. Overall, it is difficult, if not impossible, to prepare a universal product so as to satisfy needs among various consumer groups. Therefore, on the market surveyed its appropriate segmentation gains particular importance. Meanwhile, to identify the required segment and then design a product intended to satisfy its needs with top quality, it is necessary to investigate consumer habits and preferences. To this end, the survey was carried out.

On the whole, students represent a group manifesting explicit specifics. It is a community of young persons, enjoying a fairly extensive knowledge, disposing an immense quantity of leisure time, having relatively low family and labour obligations, and at the same time it lacks high budgets. As posed by the primary research hypothesis, even this group was internally diversified. The current study found numerous presumptions for demonstrating differences among students from three various countries: Poland, Ukraine and Austria. The core presumptions are as follows:

- the most common forms of spending free time across all groups, which should

not come as a surprise, is recreation and sightseeing, yet even the findings in this area reveal differences; for instance recreation on the beach was reported by 77% of Poles, whereas merely 52% by Ukrainians;

- considerable differences among groups were evident in assessment of factors determining travel decisions, though the cost was the key driver across all groups, differences in the assessment of other factors stood at 30-40%;
- across groups surveyed, intermediaries are used in various manners, e.g. students in Austria indicated purchase of flight tickets through intermediaries on a more frequent basis than Poles and Ukrainians;
- all groups surveyed claimed that they heavily used Internet tools, but they did so in a different manner, e.g. Poles are more eager to utilize discussion forums, while students from Austria more frequently use reservation systems such “booking.com”.

To conclude, it should be kept in mind that the findings produced should be approached with some caution. Overall, this was a research survey and groups of respondents were limited. Yet, differences across specific groups were distinctive so that they could not be caused by sampling or a statistical error. Consequently, while managing any tourism product, attention should be drawn to differences between consumers. On the other hand, adjusting the product to the expectations of any group may lead to a specific conflict, and such measures may result in the dissatisfaction of another group. In many situations differences in expectations may be hard to be reconciled, e.g. in the case of the hotel which develops its infrastructure for families with kids may disturb persons seeking for peace and quiet.

At the same time it appears that there is the need to continue research in the foregoing area. Certainly, it would be expedient to carry out surveys across a group broader than students. Due to the current situation in Ukraine it is necessary to consider how much tourism lost its relevance among consumer expenditures in the country. Moreover, it should be also underlined that the survey solely indicated certain behaviours in specific consumers' groups, and thus it would be advisable to make further inquiries on the motives propelling tourists behaviours. The research area presented is the domain subject to dynamic shifts, and therefore provides numerous opportunities for researchers.

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Competences Assessment and Evaluation Differences and Errors – a Case of IT Profession

Abstract: The purpose of this paper is to verify the hypothesis assuming that appraisal evaluation in companies is overestimated, especially in the case of male IT professionals. Although a valid and reliable evaluation and assessment method exists, and the Development Center method could be mentioned in this context, competences are not assessed properly enough in business. To achieve this goal, the authors analyzed a competence profile relevant to labour market regarding interns graduated from the Polish-Japanese Institute of Information Technology (P-JIIT). The authors explored the results of competence assessment conducted with the Development Center method, as well as the results of performance evaluation upon the completion of a three-month internship in the leading IT companies. The analysis of differences with respect to gender was made basing on the two sources of information on competences. It is preceded by an introduction outlining the main competence-related issues, the Development Center and the performance evaluation principles and errors, as well as the project for IT graduates carried out in the P-JIIT.

The findings of the study show that in terms of the performance women in IT industry are evaluated by employers lower than men. This, however, is not the case when we take into consideration reliable scores of assessment conducted by objective assessors during the processes of Development Center.

Key words: Development Center, performance evaluation, IT professional, evaluation errors, gender differences, Poland.

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Preface

This article discusses the problem of competences assessment. Namely, it addresses the observed differences and mistakes in assessment depending on the method applied and the gender of the assessed individuals. A reliable and valid employee and candidate competences assessment is important, since personnel decisions regarding employment and career development depend on it. The goal of this article is to confirm that performance appraisal performed by immediate superiors is too positive, especially in the case of male IT specialists. The authors carried out the analysis of this problem among IT professionals, specifically graduates of the Polish - Japanese Institute of Information Technology (P-JIIT), which offers its graduates internships in top IT companies.

Empirical data have been gathered from both participants and organizers of the P-JIIT's internship programmes. Intern's Development Center results and the results of performance evaluation upon the completion of a three-month internship have been used. First, differences in the results of assessment conducted with the use of both methods are contrasted. Next, it is assessed to what extent the differences are grounded in the prognostic relevance of DC. The analyses have been conducted separately for male and female assessment subjects.

For the purpose of this article, subject-matter literature has been analyzed in the scope of competences, employee appraisal and Development Center. Desk research has been conducted in relation to IT specialists' job and competences as well as competency assessment statistical analysis and its prognostic relevance.

The article is composed of several sections, starting with the preface, followed by the definition of the term competence, the explanation of the main rules for employee appraisal and mistakes typical for the process, and the description of Development Center with its reliability and validity criteria. Further, the branch and profession of IT specialists is presented, including the goals of IT professionals education and P-JIIT interns development programme. The following section presents empirical data analysis and conclusions. Application and scientific recommendations are presented in the Conclusions section.

Competence

The exploration of competence as one of employee's characteristics goes back to the 1970s when McClelland [1973] published a research paper 'Testing for competence rather than for intelligence'. At that point competence became a key component of employee characteristic in terms of their effectiveness and performance. Neither intelligence tests scores nor academic aptitude can determine job performance or lifelong success.

Thanks to Boyatzis [1982] it was confirmed that competence is a bundle of knowledge, skills, abilities, traits and behaviors. Thus, competence reflects the ca-

pability of performing rather than the actual performance itself. Later it was confirmed by Spencer and Spencer [1993] that competence as an individual's characteristic determines their behavior and performance at work, i.e. in their professional settings, which is a fundamental finding.

Competences manifest themselves in behaviors. As Jabłońska – Wołoszyn [2008, pp.48] emphasizes, competence “is expressed through behavior, the way in which a professional works, which allows them to achieve outstanding results, expected by the organization.” Employee's competences by Rostkowski [2014, pp. 42] are defined as “knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes of employees, activated in the process of work and aimed at the implementation of the organization's strategy”. Thus, employee's competence comprises whatever employee has and engages in order to pursue the organization's strategy.

Competence as an individual's feature is their intangible value. Therefore, they can make decisions concerning the way and the area in which they use competence. Competences are not about willingness or possibility, they are disclosed in one's behavior. Professionals transfer competences from vocational settings to personal area; they act and express themselves in line with their underlying competences. Their behaviors provide relatively valuable material for further observation and evaluation. Due to this fact, competences can be measured at several levels of excellence. However, competence evaluation score cannot be regarded as definite, since the level of competence may change over time; consequently, it can increase or decrease. Despite the ongoing discussion aimed at establishing to what extent specific competences can be changed, they seem to be developed with the aim of satisfying an immediate need.

Performance Evaluation Standard and its Errors

Competences can be assessed for several reasons. Employees' competences are assessed according to performance feedback scale. The focus here is on the way in which employees behave when fulfilling their tasks, rather than on what kind of outcome they produce at work. Performance appraisal can be conducted by other individuals who witnessed how an appraisee behaves at work. It is noteworthy that a number of organizational roles entail performance review of employees or interns.

The immediate supervisor is usually in the best position to observe and evaluate the performance and the competences of their subordinates. Upward evaluation can also take place when subordinates assess how competent their immediate supervisor is. Peer appraisal is carried out when employees at the same level of job responsibility appraise each other. When appraisee is asked to evaluate themselves, we speak of self-appraisal. Typically, a team of appraisers cooperate to establish the final score of competence level. In some cases a rating committee operates, when 3 - 4 supervisors evaluate the level of competence.

Apart from this, human capital specialists assess employees' competence. They are involved in the assessment process on special occasions such as promotion, training plan, human capital audit or shortlisting the candidates applying for work.

In all the above cases the process of appraisal is conducted by individuals. Naturally, we can expect that as humans they will be different from each other. For instance, we will observe a variety in terms of their competence necessary for objective assessment of other people's behaviors reflecting their competences. There are several errors that affect the quality of assessment they perform. In this connection, a number of examples can be quoted, which illustrate the factors affecting performance and competence appraisal [Biddle 1987]. The most common of them include:

- Unclear Standards – ambiguous goals and appraisal dimensions can result in a biased appraisal process.
- Halo or Horn Effect – the influence of an appraisers' general impression on the final score. The halo effect occurs when one positive factor overshadows all the negative factors, whereas the horn effect is opposite - it can be observed when the impact of a negative factor or score alters other scores and the overall appraisal.
- Leniency or Strictness – some appraisers have a tendency either to overrate or underrate the evaluated individuals. We deal with leniency when an appraiser tends to offer a higher score than it is demonstrated by particular performance. At the same time, we can speak of strictness, as opposed to leniency, when the score is evidently lower than it could be expected.
- Attribution bias or stereotyping – preconceived views on individuals or groups such as age, race, gender or other characteristics can result in abnormally low or high scores.
- Central Tendency – it occurs when appraisers stick to the middle of the rating scale, thus rating everyone as average in every dimension of performance evaluation.
- Recency bias – we speak of it when the following interrelation is observed: the more recent a particular behavior is, the more likely it is to influence the score in a positive or negative way [Dessler 2012].

Assessors tend to make mistakes in their evaluation. Nevertheless Latham and Wexley [Hedge and Kavanagh 1988] suggested that rating errors are pervasive, and raters simply do not know how to correct them. Generally, the trend to overestimate rather than underestimate results from the evaluating supervisors' preoccupation that excessively unfavorable score may demotivate the appraisee or reveal the supervisor's insufficient involvement in monitoring their employee and supporting them in case they face difficulties [Prowse P., Prowse J., 2009]. In addition, appraisal score often influences one's career development; it may be either inhibited

or accelerated. Typically, high score obtained by an intern offered a wider prospect for their further career upon the internship completion. This might have prompted the assessors to give their subordinates a more favorable score. Furthermore, a relatively low objectivity of assessment results from adopting the “top-down” evaluating approach” [McGregor D., 1957]. This kind of assessment is inherently gender biased, which significantly disrupts the process of evaluating women by their supervisors [Fletcher C., 1999]. On the one hand, women are perceived as demonstrating feminine features and therefore more competent in communication and cooperation; on the other hand, their competence in handling tasks or dealing with difficulties is evaluated as insufficient. This error is frequently combined with another presumption – as Landy and Earr [1980] indicate, in occupations perceived as masculine, ratings of females tended to be lower than males.

IT-related jobs are perceived as masculine. At the same time, in IT industry the male programmers absolutely outnumber the female ones. This may pose the risk of Double Standards and Extremity Effects emerging. A woman, unlike a man, is not a model IT professional. Therefore, women are assessed in a more restrictive way – they have to demonstrate more competences to achieve the same rating as the representatives of the dominating group, in this case, the group of men (this applies to good and higher ratings) [Eagly A. H., Karau S. J., 2002].

Validity and Reliability of Assessment and Development Center (AC/DC)

Assessment and Development Center can be described as multidimensional processes of competence assessment by selected independent and objective assessors. This involves a specific arrangement of methods, assessors and assesses gathered in one location for one or two days. The definition of Assessment and Development Center proposed by Rowe [2013, p. 37] provides as follows: “An assessment center is a process employing multiple techniques and multiple assessors to produce judgments regarding the extent to which a participant displays selected competences”. Although the definition quoted above is influential, still it has certain limitations. The main reservation concerns judgment development. We can rightly treat judgments as absolute conclusions, expressing certainty, whereas competence assessment serves as a reliable method involving limited prediction. Even though the AC/DC has a higher efficiency and validity in comparison to other evaluation methods, its predictive value is not higher than 76% [Wąsowska-Bąk K., Górecka D., Mazur, M. 2012]. The method can be applied any time, depending on an organization or a society needs. Development Centers are focused on assessing competences and an individual’s potential to fulfill specific roles. Therefore, they are organized with the intention of developing a strategy for career planning, training, or people’s development. As a result, the evaluation is performed of the gap between the competences expected and those actually held; moreover, the follow up is offered on how to improve them.

The basic elements of Assessment and Development Centers which guarantee the validity and reliability of the prediction include the following activities:

- Job analysis or competence modeling identifies dimensions or other variables to assess.
- Multiple assessment techniques are used to elicit relevant information.
- The assessment techniques include simulations of job-relevant situations.
- Multiple, trained assessors are involved.
- Overt behavior demonstrated by participants is classified with respect to dimensions or other variables.
- Systematic procedures are used to record, classify, report, and occasionally rate behaviors.
- Integration of the data across assessors, exercises, and categories is carried out within a certain time span after the observation by means of a systematic process [Thornton III G. C., 2011].

Another key factor determining the reliability and validity of DC is the standard of assessors' assessments. The assessors team consists of specially trained people who are not functionally related to appraisers. Work standard regulates the assessors' activities precisely in order to achieve objective evaluation.

Assessors are trained in evaluation issues, in using the competences' scale, implementing the AC/DC standards, and offered special preparation prior to every session, differing in terms of its methodology.

The time to find behavioral evidence by assessor is the period over which the ongoing real time observation takes place of AC/DC exercises, which is aimed at finding behavioral evidence by an assessor. Their main task is to observe, record, classify and evaluate (ORCE) different behaviors of the assessees. All those activities are focused on the competences to be assessed, which are clearly indicated in every exercise. Over one exercise an assessor handles no more than 6 - 8 competences to be assessed [Thornton III G. C., 2011], so the number of competences in one exercise never exceeds 6. Apart from this, assessors are familiarized with the scenario of every exercise; thus, they know what kind of behavior indicators are likely to be displayed by the assessees.

They work individually during a DC session and cooperate with other assessors to figure out what the competences characteristics and scores of DC participants are. Each task has to be assessed by at least two assessors. Each of the assessors works individually, however, they ultimately have to reach a consensus as regards the observed behaviors. The best practice seems to be refraining from expressing any opinion regarding DS's competences until the end of the session.

As Rowe [2013] claimed, despite all the existing principles and preparation, the assessors make some mistakes. Their personal characteristics such as kindness or age, combined with certain evaluation errors can be perceived as pitfalls in terms

of assessments outcomes. Still, the evaluation carried out during performance appraisal is less reliable and less valid.

Since the first applications of assessment and development center method, which took place in the 1970s, only a limited number of studies indicated gender bias. Riggi et al. [Bobrow W., Leonards J.S. 1997] when analyzing the ratings with respect to the gender of a session participants did not find significant differences in ratings for men and women ratees on any of the assessment dimensions.

Competence Assessment and Evaluation in the Developmental Project for Interns from Polish – Japanese Institute of Information Technology

The IT sector is highly innovative, where employees' competences serve as the key to success. Some competences are specific, they require a wide scope of knowledge, experience, skills, abilities and talents which are necessary to perform professional tasks in a specific workplace and within the profession [Research Reports, 2012-2014] – where major emphasis is made on technology.

Despite the necessity of specific competences, some transferable competences such as predispositions and potentials of qualifications, as well as the experience determining efficient performance in various professional contexts and enhancing the full potential of the qualification and professional experience [Turek, D. and Wojtczuk-Turek, A. 2010] are also important [Wojtczuk-Turek A., 2014]. People who have transferable competences are still sought for on the Polish labor market [Kompetencje... 2011]. Thus, the combination of transferable and specific competences is necessary to be effectively employed in IT sector.

The IT-related jobs are perceived as those performed by men. The main reason for this is the existing stereotype classifying computer science as men's preserve [Mitura A., 2012]. There are more men than women choosing technical majors during their studies, which also applies to computer sciences. So, 91% of IT sector employees are college graduates [IT@PL..., 2013]. If we look at companies operating in programming and IT consulting, we can notice that they employ (62%) men and women (38%).

It seems to be important for universities of technology to educate professionals equipped with reliable skills in computer science, as well as the necessary knowledge and attitude to work as IT specialists on individual and team tasks.

As an example of an institution of higher education satisfying these requirements we should mention the Polish Japanese Institute of Information Technology, where an undergraduate program of computer science at bachelor level is focused on:

- providing current learning outcomes and market verification of skills by integrating the program with professional certification paths in IT recognized in the labor market;

- the development of social competences necessary for creative work, teamwork and entrepreneurship.

Recurring surveys of students' opinion show that the educational program of the Faculty of Information Technology is highly valued. Students appreciate the emphasis made on practice, selective approach to theory, program adjustments aimed at keeping up with market changes and meeting the requirements of employers, access to the courses and an opportunity to obtain certificates (including those of Cisco and Microsoft), as well as modern teaching methods.

An additional activity supporting students development is career counseling. Students can choose career paths based on individual competence diagnosis and labor market opportunity. The P-JIIT facilitates employment decisions by searching interesting vacancies, apprenticeships and internships programs.

In order to comply with the European priority of promoting technology-related sciences among young women and supporting their career development, the P-JIIT has initiated specifically tailored activities.

A 'University Closer to Business - Graduate Closer to Work' Project offered an opportunity of a 3-month internship for 76 students over the period of 2011-2012. Female students were encouraged to participate in it. Over the selection process students or graduates who applied for an internship were subject to several stages of evaluation, which were aimed at assessing their the core labor market competences. The P-JIIT in cooperation with employers selected the interns, whose competences were assessed by independent assessors. During the assessment session, the Development Center assessors focused on competences desirable in the labor market such as: Entrepreneurship, Consistency of goal's pursuit, Dealing with difficulties, Cooperation, and Communication.

Students took a 3-month internship in the key companies of the IT sector; upon their completion they obtained the evaluation of their work. In addition, the internship keepers – companies employees completed the internship evaluation survey, which comprised an overall performance evaluation and individual characteristics based on interns performance and behavior. With the information gained on competence scores, the analysis of competences assessment and evaluation differences was possible.

Analysis

Analyses were conducted based on the data regarding the interns' competence assessment gathered during the Development Center, as well as the interns' performance evaluation obtained from their supervisors upon the completion of a three-month internship in IT companies. DC allowed for the assessment of competences that are important to commence and persevere in their careers. At the same time, the scores obtained after the internship enabled the verification of the competences advancement during the work process.

In order to perform the analysis a recalculation of rating scales was necessary. During DC a 1 - 4 rating scale was used; however, during performance evaluation of interns a 1-5 rating scale was used. Ratings were transformed so that the maximum score was 100 and the minimum equaled one. For example, a score of 4.1 on a five-point scale is interpreted as 82; similarly, the score of 2.6 on a four point scale equals 65. For comparisons we used an average assessment of all the ratings of competences obtained from DC, as well as general evaluation performance scores of internship.

Table 1. Recalculation of evaluation and assessment scores

Source	Evaluation and assessment dimensions	nominal rate	recalculated score	nominal rate	recalculated score
		women	women	men	men
employer	General	4.1	82	4.3	86
DC	Average	2.6	65	2.4	60
employer	Team work skills	4.5	90	4.2	84
DC	Cooperation	2.7	67.5	2.3	57.5
employer	Communication skills	4.5	90	4.3	86
DC	Communications	2.7	67.5	2.4	60
employer	Consistency in words and deeds	4.6	92	4.5	90
DC	Consistency of goal's pursuit	2.6	65	2.3	57.5

Source: own.

Next, the dimensions (in case of DC) and characteristics (in case of employer) were selected, which are comparable in terms of team work skills and cooperation, communication skills and communications, consistency in words and deeds and consistency of goal's pursuit; the corresponding results are presented below (see Table 1).

In general, the interns received higher scores from their superiors in comparison to those obtained during DC. The evaluation of the interns was higher by at least 4 points, with a maximum of 32.5 points (see Table 2).

Table 2 Scores differences by assessment method

Source	Dimensions	Women	Men
employer	general	82	86
DC		65	60
	differences	17	26
employer	cooperation	90	84
DC		67.5	57.5
	differences	22.5	26,5

employer	communication	90	67.5
DC		86	60
	differences	4	7.5
employer	consistency	92	90
DC		65	57.5
	differences	27	32.5

Source: own.

The superiors' general performance evaluation of the interns reached 82 points for women and 86 points for men. In several dimensions female interns were evaluated by the supervisors higher than male. The biggest discrepancy was noted in terms of creativity and independence of problem solving, as well as substantive preparation. In all other dimensions men were evaluated higher than women. Although the general evaluation of women is lower than that of men, all scores average amounted to 4.4 and was the same for men and women.

However, during the DC assessment, women were scored higher than men. Their general rating was 5 points higher than that of men; this was even more evident in other dimensions of assessment.

Table 3. Interns' DC scores distribution by gender

Evaluation dimension	Women	Men	Differences
General score	65	60	5
Cooperation	67.5	57.5	10
Communication	67.5	60	7.5
Consistency	65	57.5	7.5

Source: own.

DC assessment and performance evaluation are the two methods representing different approaches. The development center is a method whose validity, reliability and prognostic relevance have been acknowledged, in this case further analysis was made. With the assumption that the prognostic relevance of DC is not higher than 76%, the potential scores of performance evaluation were calculated, based on prognostic relevance of 62%, due to specific group and methodology adopted. Hence, the performance evaluation score could be higher or lower by 38% from DC assessment scores. For example, a DC score of 60 could generate the performance appraisal score between 37.5 and 82.5. The calculation was made with respect to gender, which is shown in table 4 and 5. A conclusion can be drawn that every performance evaluation in case of men was overestimated; the scores are higher than the potential maximum. Even though performance evaluation scores are higher than those obtained during DC in case of women, the scores fit the intervals, with one exception, namely that of consistency.

Table 4. Prognostic relevance calculation of men scores

	DC	Min	max	employer
General score	60	37.5	82.8	86
Cooperation	57.5	35.6	79.3	84
Communication	60	37.2	82.8	86
Consistency	57.5	35.6	79.3	90

Source: own.

Table 5. Prognostic relevance calculation of women scores

	DC	Min	max	employer
General score	65	40.3	89.7	82
Cooperation	67.7	42	93.4	90
Communication	67.7	41.8	93.1	80
Consistency	65	40.3	89.7	92

Source: own.

Conclusions

The purpose of this paper is to verify the hypothesis assuming that appraisal evaluation in companies is overestimated, especially in the case of male IT professionals. Furthermore, competences evaluation performed in organizations only by line managers has certain drawbacks in terms of its reliability and validity. These drawbacks do not exist when Assessment and Development Center is applied.

Hence, theoretical and empirical analysis conducted in IT sector in Poland, provided the data allowing for the formulation of the following conclusions:

- Evaluation of the competences performed by individuals lacking preparation is unreliable. Such evaluation is fraught with stereotypes and evaluation errors. As a result, internship keepers evaluate the interns too favorably; furthermore, men obtain higher scores than women.
- DC represents a reliable and valid assessment tool for competence evaluation, which has been confirmed in numerous studies. The obtained outcomes based on DC allow for the estimation of the area of uncertainty. Competence assessment obtained by interns is supposed to be objective. The analyzed information of the DC competence scores has brought the authors to a conclusion that interns have not reached a good score; with women having slightly higher scores than men.
- Employers appraise IT female professionals unreasonably lower than their male counterparts. The scores obtained are not justified by underlying facts, which was confirmed by the analysis and comparisons of the evaluation and assessment scores. As a result, the scores got by women from the interns keepers were more adequate, while the assessment of men was overestimated.

The conclusions were drawn basing on our specifically developed and conducted Project, whose outcomes provide interesting data for further research. This sample can serve as the illustration of a phenomenon rather than scientific evidence applicable to general population.

The authors are fully aware of the fact that the study has its constraints such as a limited number of individuals subject to research, different evaluation criteria and assessed competences, or the assumption of the highest possible predictive value of DC results.

The analysis presented can serve as the first stage to further more detailed investigation to be carried out. Over the prospective activities it would be useful to adopt other methods of assessment of competence, for example, 360 degrees evaluation of 360, as well as target a more relevant research sample.

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Design and design thinking in building an innovative organizational culture¹

Abstract: For many companies innovations are crucial for achieving a competitive advantage. Many factors have been revealed to be determinants of company innovativeness. One is organizational culture which can support or diminish innovative attempts of employees. In recent years there is a growing interest in design and design thinking as methods of implementing innovations. Interdisciplinary, multicultural teams, fast prototyping, co-creation with users are only examples of specific methods that are being promoted by designers and design thinkers, that can significantly affect organisational culture.

The objective of this paper is to analyse the impact of design and design thinking on the organizational culture. In the first part literature findings are presented. The second part shows results of the exploratory research that has been conducted among design-oriented companies from Sweden and Poland. This project was qualitative study aimed to compare managers' attitudes towards design; to look into existing processes in companies connected with design and to explore the different roles that designers play in organizations.

Key words: organizational culture, design management, design thinking, innovations.

Introduction

Traditionally, design was understood mainly as aesthetics, external form of a product. In recent years, however, we can observe increased interest in design in a much broader sense - as a tool to support the creation of innovation, building

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strong brand, or even the strategy throughout the organization. Design can benefit company at many levels, one of which is organisational culture. By cooperating with designers and design thinkers company can implement new methods of working, which are based on experimentations, visual thinking, multidisciplinary and deep user empathy. Many organisations nowadays establish “design alliances” – very close cooperation with design specialists who act like a knowledge brokers, helping companies experiment and innovate continuously.

The objective of this paper is to analyse the impact of design and design thinking on the organizational culture. In the first part of the article we present the literature review on design and design management, then we introduce the concept of organisational culture. In the second part of the article we present some evidence from exploratory research conducted among Swedish and Polish furniture companies. We show some insights on how companies use design and what type of organisational benefits they gain.

The role of design in business

The role of design has shifted considerably over the past few years. Design is now being recognized as a key business asset that can add significant value to business performance (Press & Cooper, 2003; Kristensen & Gronhaug, 2007; Brown, 2009). Traditionally, design was perceived mainly as visual appearance, aesthetics, external form of a product. In recent years, however, we can observe increased interest in design in a much broader sense - as a tool to support the creation of innovation, building strong brand, or even the strategy throughout the organization (Martin, 2009; Verganti, 2006, 2009). Design management has grown to become important business specialization, because, as Bruce and Bessant (2002) put it: ‘Good design does not happen by accident, but rather as the result of a managed process’. Borja de Mozota (2003) stresses that design is based on exploration and risk-taking, whilst management is founded on control and predictability, thus design management can present significant challenge to many organizations.

There are many benefits of design for business. In this paper we analyse the three main levels: financial; marketing (product and brand) and organizational.

In the financial area the literature has clearly proven the positive impact of design on a number of financial measures (for example: sales, return on equity, net income, operating cash-flow) and higher share prices of listed companies using design (Hertenstein, Platt & Veryzer 2005). Design allows to use the strategy of high prices (Borja de Mozota 2006).

In the area of marketing, the main benefits are associated with the product. In the literature we can find the elements such as the creation of more innovative, attractive products that appeal customer’s attention (Jerrard & Hands 2008, Bloch 1995, Creusen & Schoormans 2005). Design helps to create “visual equity” - a

situation where products are easily recognizable and distinctive from the competition (Bruce & Daly 2007). The second perspective within marketing area relates to the brand, and some authors mention: stronger brand identity and positive experiences connected with it. Design works as a form of communication, helps to form a unique perception of the brand, and the appropriate management of design also allows for enhanced, magnified the role of visual elements and greater efficiency of the information provided (Ulrich & Eppinger 2000, Jerrard & Hands 2008). The literature emphasizes that design also enhances customer satisfaction and loyalty (Jerrard & Hands 2008).

The last set of benefits are connected with organisational benefits. In this area design is very often related to organisational change and learning. Some authors see design as an element of change management, where designers can help to adapt to changing market conditions. Utterback notes that designers have three types of knowledge: knowledge of technological possibilities, knowledge about users and knowledge of the products language and that they are able to easily integrate all those three in successful products (2006). Many authors often refer to unique characteristics of companies that cooperates with designers. Some authors call it “design thinking businesses” (Martin 2009, Brown 2008), others call it “design attitude” (Boland, Collopy, Lyytinen & Yoo 2008), while others refer to it as “design mindset” (Dunne & Martin 2006). All those are connected with specific competencies of organizations that are actively cooperating with designers. As the main designers’ characteristics that are highlighted by researchers are: empathy, integrated thinking, optimism, innate desire to experiment, finding innovative solutions and multidisciplinary (Brown 2008). It is also stressed that designers have a specific set of practical skills related to the creation of visualizations, prototypes, mock-ups, models, simulations or technical drawings that can support productivity and efficiency. In the area of organizational benefits, design is also treated as a source of process improvement (Bruce & Cooper 1997, Lockwood 2009). For example during the new product development designers can help to reduce time to market, achieve the user orientation and avoid conflicts (Jerrard & Hands 2007).

Design thinking

Precisely because of the specific ways of designers’ work and their unique approach to solving design problems, managers started adopting those methods in solving managerial problems. This method is called in the literature “design thinking”. One of the most popular advocates of design thinking, Thomas Lockwood defines it as follows: *“The term design thinking is generally referred to as applying a designer’s sensibility and methods to problem solving, no matter what the problem is. It is not a substitute for professional design or the art and craft of designing, but rather a methodology for innovation and enablement”* (Lockwood 2009).

The design thinking process is called “human-centered” because it starts with the people. It begins by examining the needs, dreams, and behaviours of individuals (Desirability). Once it’s identified what is Desirable, the lenses of Feasibility and Viability are brought in. So it is tested (1) what is technically and organizationally feasible (Feasibility) and (2) what can be financially viable? (Viability) (Brown 2009). Many authors focus on specific tools that can be used by managers. Lockwood indicates that design thinking process is using observation, collaboration and rapid concept prototyping as a characteristic points of the method: “*Design thinking is a human-centered innovation process that emphasizes observation, collaboration, fast learning, visualization of ideas, rapid concept prototyping, which ultimately influences innovation and business strategy. The objective is to involve consumers, designers, and business people in an integrative process, which can be applied to product, service, and experiences to market*” (Lockwood 2009).

There are several key tenets of design thinking that seem to be common (Lockwood 2009; Brown 2009; Martin 2009):

- Deep understanding of the consumer based on emphatic approach (observational and ethnographic methods);
- Collaboration through forming multidisciplinary teams;
- Accelerate learning through visualization, hands-on experimentation, and creating quick prototypes, which are made as simple as possible to get usable feedback;
- Visualization of concepts by using prototypes (concept sketches, physical mock-ups, stories, role playing) to make intangible become tangible;
- Concurrent business analysis integrated during the process rather than added on later.

Design thinking helps companies to discover and exploitation of new business opportunities. Martin (2009) emphasises that companies need to understand and balance the exploitation and exploration processes. At the same time, he indicates that still very few companies can actually do this successfully (he calls those companies “design-thinking businesses”).

Design in the organisational culture

Organizational culture can be defined as the values, beliefs and hidden assumptions that organizational members have in common (Cameron and Quinn, 1999; Deshpande and Webster, 1989; Miron et al., 2004). Various researchers have proven that culture plays very crucial role in innovation processes (Higgins and McAllaster, 2002; Jassawalla and Sashittal, 2002; Martins and Terblanche, 2003). Tesluk et al. (1997) argue that culture have a dual effect on innovation – from the viewpoints of socialization and of co-ordination. Through socialization, individuals can know whether creative and innovative behaviours are part of the path the business treads. At the same time, the business can, through activities, policies and procedures, gen-

erate values, which support creativity and innovation, and its innovative capacity will subsequently improve (Naranjo-Valencia, Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle 2011).

There are many models that distinguish different organisational cultures using different criteria. Cameron and Quinn (1999) proposed a model called Competing Values Framework that defines four cultures – adhocracy, clan, market and hierarchy. This model uses two dimensions. The first dimension is flexibility and discretion versus stability and control, the second – external focus versus internal focus and integration. We can discuss that, by having external, user focus and using and having the mind-set oriented on constant experimentation, design and design thinking can help companies to move towards adhocracy. And that type of culture is necessary for companies that want to innovate, as adhocracy cultures foster innovation strategies and hierarchical cultures promote rather imitation (Naranjo-Valencia, Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle 2011).

Even if the literature on organizational change is rich and heterogeneous, only a few contributions have discussed the idea that design culture and practice can be a vehicle, an agent of change in the culture of an enterprise. Buchanan argues for a new kind of design research, oriented directly toward the influence of design on organizational life (Buchanan, 2008). Junginger examines the possibility that product development might lead to organizational change in an enterprise when it is bound to the idea that the process of product development should be “human-centered,” and thus provoke “outside-in” change, as opposed to the normal “inside-out” view of the organization as a machine (Junginger, 2007). However the process can be characterized by tensions, conflicts and misunderstandings. As Deserti and Rizzo stress: “*Designing significantly new products might bring unexpected changes in the culture of an enterprise because contradictions might arise between the current culture and the one needed to implement the innovations. Thus, when design culture interacts with the culture of an enterprise (...) the culture of the enterprise might change as an unexpected consequence of the interaction between the two types of culture*”.(2013, p. 36). The analysis of design from the perspective of organizational change throws new light on the relationship between design culture and enterprise culture, as design challenges the natural organizational attitudes of preservation and resistance to change. That can generate a constant tension between the search for innovation and the necessity of relying on established ideas and solutions. This constant tension builds a significant link between design practice and culture and the problem of managing organizational change (Deserti & Rizzo, 2013, p. 42).

The problems described above make it worthwhile to ask what are the differentiating factors of organizations in which the design is a success from those that are not successful in this field. “Good design is good business” - a phrase uttered by Tom Watson in 1975, is one of the most cited quotes related to design. This phrase suggests that the employment of the designer brings immediate results and always

successful. However, it is known that this is incorrect thinking – collaboration with designer does not immediately means success, and a lot depends on the company and people within the organisation (Moore 2004). According to the literature first key success factor is the conviction of the management company of the value of design (Bruce & Bessant 2002, Kotchka 2003, Sanches 2006). The involvement of senior management is crucial because it provides the necessary resources, the full involvement of the company in issues related to the design (Lockwood 2004). The second factor distinguished by some authors is the multidisciplinary (Roy & Potter 1993, Bruce & Bessant 2002). The creation of an appropriate structure for the exchange of information and climate based on the cooperation is an essential prerequisite for success. It is important to integrate design with different areas within the organisation and create a culture of collaboration, teamwork, flexible problem solving (Hart & Service 1988, Sanches 2006). **The third factor is timely introduction of the designer in the process of developing a new product** (Bruce & Bessant 2002). It is emphasized that the earlier involvement, the greater the chances for a comprehensive development of the idea of a new product (Sanches 2006).

Having all that in mind we try to explore how introducing design and design thinking projects can affect the organizational culture of enterprise.

Research methodology

In the second part of this article we present results of the exploratory research project. Objective of this study was to empirically explore the nature of the current role of design within design-oriented companies ('design leaders') from Sweden and Poland. This project was qualitative research aimed to compare managers' attitudes towards design; to look into existing processes in companies connected with design issues and to explore the different roles that designers play in organizations.

We've decided to narrow our study only to 'design leaders' in order to identify and compare best practices in both countries. In the process of selecting those companies, the following criteria have been taken into account: number of design awards ('Red Dot Design Award', 'The Design S' in Sweden and 'Dobry Wzór' in Poland), industry publications, consultations with design specialists and designers, companies' web pages.

In this research project 24 in-depth interviews were conducted among two groups of respondents: marketing managers/CEOs and designers. Interviews were carried out over a period of six months (from January to July 2010). Interviews were guided by a semi-structured questionnaire, ranged from one to two hours, were taped and transcribed. The broad themes of the questionnaire encompassed the following: company and respondent characteristics, attitudes towards design, design management, processes and strategies connected with design, the role of designer

in a company and design-marketing interplay. In the next section we present briefly the results of our study. Company names are omitted for confidentiality reasons.

Design as a way for building an innovative organisation – empirical examples

Most of the interviewees agreed that design is now an essential tool for managing a company; a tool that improves functioning of the whole organization in different areas. As a result of this approach, designers were playing very important roles. In most cases they were involved in issues that go far beyond the traditional realm of their work. Despite the fact that the companies often worked with external designers, usually with one or more of them they were establishing very close cooperation. Often, these designers were invited to take active part in ‘Design Advisory Board’ or ‘Board Product’ meetings, where issues related to the development of new products, new trends, marketing, public relations were being discussed. In this approach, designers acted like brand consultants, advisors, interpreters of market changes. One respondent described this phenomenon as follows:

Most of the companies that strategically approach design, receive help from designers who act like creative directors for these brands. For example, the company Z has XY who is a designer for them, but he is also the unofficial art director of the company...he leads them, advises them, looks at the ideas of others.

Some respondents were highlighting the role of designers in the area of organizational and product innovations. One manager admitted that designers are very often the source of overcoming certain organizational limitations, but sometimes it can presents a significant challenge:

As a producer you have an idea what you can do and you have limitations of what you think you cannot do. And a designer, on the other hand, very often asks you to do something that you think you don't have tools for, and then you can have a fight, conflict. But it's very important to have fresh eyes from outside, so that you don't get stuck on what is limiting you. Very often you don't get the new tools to work out new things, if you're not pushed by designer.

Respondents also emphasized that in recent years, more and more companies have increasingly become “virtual organisations”, focusing mainly on designing and building a brand name, outsourcing production to external entities. This change has had a direct impact on expanding the requirements for designers’ work. One of them said that today being a designer is like having several different jobs at the same time. He stressed that in order to convince the company to his concept, he often has to create an advertising campaign around his idea, allowing the company to immediately see the additional value of new product. It is also more often required to provide the technological know-how associated with the manufacturing processes or the materials used. Those changes are well illustrated by the following quotation:

The myth of the designer doing a sketch on a napkin, in a bar somewhere, has nothing to do with reality. Companies now very often don't own production, don't have the knowledge, technological know-how, which means that we [designers] have to go to the sub-contractor to gain this knowledge to sell our idea to the specific company.

As one interviewee said, it's very important that design should be in the interest area of every employee in a company:

Design management is to initiate, to maintain, and to realize creative process. [...] It's not just about that it was your idea, but this project must become a part of the entire company, so that every employee will identify with what you and your team are doing. [...] Every employee should feel somehow a part of this creative design process.

Many of those companies promote flexible ways of looking for new product ideas. They have developed three main ways of the design process: (1) cooperation with architects; (2) product propositions send by designers and (3) 'traditional' design process initiated by the design brief:

During the year, we have constantly new products on the run. Initiatives for those products come from different ways. One way is when an architect is working on a project and have a special product need – so if they have an idea about those products, we build this product together. And that is what we do a lot of times. (...) The second way is that we have this ongoing relation with the designers that we work with and (...) sometimes there is 1, or 2 or 3 that I work with at the same time. And they have lot of ideas what they want to do. The third way is when we feel that we lack product in a specific area. I give them [designers - JS] a brief and tell them that actually I want this type of product.

When asked about the effects on working closely with designers, one manager admitted that:

This experience gave us a lot, not only in this particular project, but like more in general, in the way how we think and start new ventures. Right now we think in terms of the service design really, we try to develop user experience approach and we try to look at everything with different eyes, it is a change of perspective for us.

As the team managed to implement and execute the idea via design thinking approach, the whole concept of how the organisation was looking for innovation has changed. Other team member was talking that the whole culture of company has changed:

This project was just a beginning of the creation of such a culture based on the design for the client and with the client, so the design-thinking culture. And this was a great positive side of it. Now we have such a situation that different people come to us and report issues and want us to help them with their projects to be conducted in accordance with the design thinking methodology.

Now the whole unit has developed its own design thinking methodology and works mainly according to this process introduced by design consultancy. As one of the team members said: *"We have built greater confidence in ourselves"*.

Conclusions

The aim of this article was to present the role of design and design thinking in building innovative organizational culture. Design culture and practice can be a vehicle, an agent of change in the culture of an enterprise it can be a good starting point of further discussion in this area. By employment of the “human-centered” approach, designers and design thinkers can provoke organizational change to “outside-in”, as opposed to the normal “inside-out” view of the organization. As this process may bring tensions and some difficulties, it’s crucial to realise the success factors distinguished in the literature: the conviction of the management company of the value of design; multidisciplinary and timely introduction of the designer in the process of developing a new product. Cooperation with designers and design thinkers can be a starting point of the overall organisational change. Higher risk tolerance, the real customer involvement and earlier concept validations are only a few examples of the long-lasting benefits observed.

As research presented in this article was exploratory in nature we think it can be a good starting point for more in-depth research projects on the role of design and design thinking in building innovative organisational cultures of different types of organisations.

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Expected features and the behavior of talented leaders in the three sectors of the Polish economy in context with other Central-Eastern European Countries

Abstract: In this article the author attempts to analyze the expected features and behavior of talented leaders existing in the three sectors of the Polish economy according to presented literature the meaning of talent. The author presents confrontation between the most popular ways to explore talented individuals connected with IQ tests and a more adequate solution based on a practical approach. The in-depth diagnosis of the problems presents the basic expectations of employees towards organizational leaders in the three sectors of the Polish economy - public, private and NGO. The formulated questions in this article are appropriate for the needs of the first stage of leadership research. The conducted study shows expectations of employees from the last 23 years since the transformation of Poland and the 6 to 8 years since ISO standards were implemented in different Polish organizations and European Funds have supported Polish entrepreneurs and their personnel. In this article it also shows the results of international research about expectations of employees and future managers towards organizational leaders in different countries in Central-Eastern Europe.

Key words: talent, leadership, expectations, sectoral and cultural differences.

Introduction

If we assume that talented leaders are able to improve the quality of work in an organization and to strengthen its position in the world, it's difficult to be surprised that for many years there has been a search for leadership talent. Globalization causes the business world to create universal patterns of skills and behavior that ensure the success of the organization and its functions. This results in all organizations consciously or unconsciously, continuously or incidentally, the core of the

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world's dominant business culture built on a system of values and behavior characteristics of the Western world, clashes in different parts of the world with various systems of rules specific to those local and regional cultures.

Culturally organizational behavior differs greatly, but looking at organizational leadership development programs, the best business schools in the world (in Europe, America, Asia, Australia and Africa, Financial Times Ranking of Business Schools, <http://rankings.ft.com/businessschoolrankings/global-mba-rankings-2012>: 16 Aug 2012), we find that they share similarities – inspired by ways of training created and carried out in the United States, Britain and France. Poland is no exception in this regard.

Looking at Poland since 2004, significant changes in management and the organizational leadership can be observed. On the one hand, Polish managers are still responsible for directing people in an autocratic style (Maczynski, Wyspianski, 2011: 7-18) and on the other hand standardized patterns of organizational behavior in the three sectors of the Polish economy. This process is the result of changes in the business-social environment. Only a few years ago there was a clear polarization: of the public, private and non-governmental sectors.

In the public sector, organizations operated with a clearly designated set of rules from the top down. During this time management (action-oriented quality of service, reduced costs) didn't matter so much but was seen to be important. Public institutions (including local governments) didn't react to the changes in the business-social environment, because the stakeholders were petitioners, and the funding was independent of the quality of management. This situation changed in the era of competition for EU funds and the implementation of ISO 9001 systems that required that the public have to be treated as clients. This resulted in improving the quality of work, reduced job security – increased qualifications and competencies requirements.

The private sector was, until recently, locally and weakly associated with worldwide business. There has been a strong process of globalization – the Polish economy and Polish companies are increasingly exposed to competition with companies from other EU countries, global corporations, and depend more on fluctuations of different currencies in the world. Success, in these conditions, can only be obtained with a serious approach to management, especially HRM – by opting for different solutions such as the creation of human capital in an organization through talent and career management.

At the beginning of the twenty-first century, the functioning of non-governmental sector was based on public subsidies, small donations and sponsoring from local businesses. Currently NGOs must and want to compete for funds from EU, national resources and grants offered by international organizations. This approach changes the functioning of the NGOs – changing their structure, employing per-

manent staff implementing projects, not just volunteers. The observed activity and dynamism of these organizations changes the image of their management and leadership.

Different types of organizations in Poland already know that dynamic, successful survival in the changing world of the twenty-first century can provide people – especially talented leaders and has already begun to implement a variety of talent management programs. The main difficulty is, how to find a talented leader (what competences distinguish them from the business-social environment)? If finding leadership talent is almost impossible, does one, through actions directed at employees, create leaders with expected qualities, knowledge and skills? If the twenty-first century leadership requires affirmation of talent in a business-social environment, it is important to know if there are clear differences in expectations for perfect attributes and the behavior of organizational leaders in the three sectors of the Polish economy?

Talent – concepts of philosophy, psychology and human resource management

Reviewing the definitions of “talent” we have seen that most concepts of outstanding capabilities regarding them as immutable or possible to be modified with increasing experience of an individual (Listwan, 2005: 21; Armstrong, 2007: 354; Skrodzka, 2010: 27).

An example of the definition used in various scientific and professional publications is by J. S. Renzulli Model of Giftedness, which is composed of the following components (Sekowski, 2004: 35-36): above-average abilities, including general ability (high intellectual potential) and specific ability (for specific areas), creativity (originality, novelty, fluency and flexibility of thinking, solving new and unconventional problems, openness to ambiguity and uncertainty, risk-taking, sensitivity and emotional richness), commitment to work (internal discipline, perseverance in the pursuit of order, diligence, endurance, fascination with work, willingness to sacrifice and faith in their own abilities). In this approach success depends on the talent of a variety of factors, operating in areas such as personality, intelligence, emotions, motivation, temperament and creativity (Strelau, 2008).

The differentiated system of the twenty-first century organization requires leaders and other managers of certain behavior and defines dominant roles (interpersonal, information and decision-making). Their efficient performance can ensure the success of a leader and an organization. According to J. Terelak (1999: 15), the quality of work of a managerial position depends on certain abilities, such as technical efficiency (related to the preparation of theoretical and professional experience), mental agility (the condition of personality to be able to work with other people), mental acuity (the ability to diagnose, analyze any situation and make decisions).

According to data obtained by American scientists informed decisions depend on personality traits, including: analytical skills, conceptual thinking ability and logical, intuitive ability to assess, creativity, mental strength, openness perspective, a positive self-image (Penc, 2000: 71-72). In psychology, traditional ability is divided into: general – which is global, cognitive dispositions and specific (local) – specialized in the receipt and processing of specific categories of stimuli (e.g. math, language, mechanical, graphic, manual and music skills etc.). H. Gardner (2009) describes the issue of Multiple Intelligence in detail. According to J. Terelak (1999: 71), today is dominated by view that general ability is primarily determined biologically, and special abilities are a result of interaction with the environment and based on one's own individual activities. Intelligence described in the literature included the ability to adapt to new requirements by the use of thinking, the ability to perceive relationships and draw conclusions, the ability to maintain and change the direction of target behavior, the ability to intentional, rational thinking and effective operating in near environment (Terelak: 1999:72). The leader, according to H. Gardner, must have a high ability to process different types of information, must be aware of their own abilities, preferences and prejudices and work well with a variety of stakeholders, continuously increasing capabilities of the future and create a story about a particular drama – with the construction, which refers to various components of intelligence such as existential themes, spatial setting, a logical sequence of events, musical rhythm (Gardner, 2009: 303-304).

Let us look at the practical meaning of ability (talent) mentioned, in their text, S.A. Witkowski and L. Stopyra (2010). They point out that a particularly important element of an effective manager's work is practical intelligence. The basis for the interest of various researchers concerning practical intelligence was conviction (built on the outcome) that the practical ability of humans can't be verified by IQ testing (Terelak, Baczyńska, 2008). The concept of practical intelligence is derived from Sternberg's theory of intelligence, according to which intelligence is a form of development and competence, which development lets one achieve the level of an expert in a chosen field. According to U.G. Neisser (Nęcka, 2003) the measure of intelligence is the effectiveness of dealing with real life situations. Practical intelligence is the ability to acquire knowledge (informal, tacit) obtained by one's own life experiences (its level rises throughout life). Practical intelligence is also defined as the ability to search for an optimal adaptation to the requirements and challenges of the environment – adaptation, development or exploration of a new environment according to individual needs (Terelak, Baczyńska, 2008).

J. Menkes (2007) based some part of his theory on analytical intelligence but also found that some part of leadership behavior did not result from analytical intelligence. J. Mankes formulated the term “executive intelligence” (in Polish translated as “leadership intelligence”), which according to him is a kind of business

sharpness. Intelligence is a separate set of leadership skills that must show the individual in three contexts of work: the tasks, working with people and delegating duties, self-assessment and appropriate adaptation of his/her own actions. Intelligence in this approach is a set of important capabilities that drives the decision-making process and behavioral path. Leadership intelligence is rooted in critical thinking, but it is not only the capacity for abstract thinking and reasoning. It is an expanded, practical type of critical thinking and is the efficiency and effectiveness of the use of available information in thought and action. Evaluation of leadership intelligence is using realistic work scenarios. According to J. Menkes one can learn cognitive abilities that make up the leadership intelligence (for example by using the Socratic method). His studies show that there are no significant differences in IQ leadership arising from geographical origin, gender, and race (Menkes, 2007:197-199).

This understanding of intelligence revolves around understanding talent (ability), which will be the basis of the analysis of talent management issues within an organization, in this article. Talent, in the proposed approach, revealed only in the effective activity of the leader. Such an approach seems to draw on the achievements in areas of knowledge as well as pragmatism, praxeology and leadership categorization theory, social identity theory of leadership and the concept of practical intelligence.

According to pragmatism the evaluation concerns only the practical consequences of action (Tatarkiewicz, 1983). This perception of reality has strongly influenced the increase in popularity of the theory based on the analysis of various aspects of human activities from the perspective of their impact. The good, and positive were considered as an action, which ended in success. In this regard, the analysis operation is carried out from the end to the beginning of the activity. This approach allows one to explore various options for actions that can lead to success. In this way, writers describe profiles of effective leaders – because of their success, researchers and practitioners start to interested in their lives, trying to understand – why they had achieved success? Besides, if we assume that the world of business (profit-oriented organization) does not work according to perfect, absolute solutions, but is differentiated by a relative system built on optimally adapted premises action, that the essential (basic) for the study of leadership talent is praxeology. According to T. Kotarbinski – it is a goal-oriented epistemology of human behavior, which requires the organization as a condition for successful implementation (efficiency). The indicators of efficiency are: effectiveness – which is the relation between the result of the action to the state intended, and the economy – which is the relation between the result of the action to the effort incurred to achieve this (Kotarbinski, 1999). Leading people – understood to be the best possible solution, in a given place and time, the influence on subordinates (employees) is the maximization of both the above-mentioned factors. In this approach, a talented leader is

one who understands situational conditions, makes decisions which will be a great opportunity for success.

Based on the requirements of this science created the term “praxeological competence” (Broniewska, 2010:105), which are similar to the scope of the proposed definition of the term “leadership talent”. The set of competencies, created by G. Broniewska, includes: the ratio of the tasks, challenges and activities, motivation, the gift of creating a vision and engaging people in tasks, flexibility and risk taking, efficiency in managing change, stress management, time management, political skills in the form of co-operation with the environment, creating alliances and building facilities for the company.

Complementing pragmatic and socially conditioned leadership talent can be the theory of “categorized leadership”, which assumes that people have their own ideas of leader optimal behavior in typical working situations or specific patterns based on cognitive types of leadership. In this perspective we can talk about the perception of leadership, because there is a process of creating prototypes, storing them in memory and run in a specific social context. “Effectively leaders are those individuals who have the attributes needed in each category of leadership, matching the requirements of a specific situation” (Kozusznik, 2005: 117). In this perspective, a talented leader can be a person who, under the requirements of the situation is highlighted by any of the 27 prototype properties for leaders (including dedication, goal-oriented, informing, charisma, responsibility, intelligence, determination, organization and verbal skills) (Lord, Foti and DeVader, 1984). According to another concept, the most important factors are: dedication, intelligence, charisma, strength and sensitivity (Offermann, J.K. Kennedy, P.W. Wirtz, 1994). The researches in the last two decades show that an effective leader must be flexible in modifying their behavior to the needs and requirements of social tasks (Hall, Workman, Marchioro, 1998; Zaccaro, Foti, Kenny, 1991). R.G. Lord also states that there is strong correlation between the perception of leadership and social power (1977). According to the described theory leadership is the result of the individual processing of information, and is not owned by specific groups (Kozusznik, 2005: 118).

According to the social identity theory of leadership (Hogg, Martin, Weeden, Epitropaki, 2001) talent of leaders can appear by bringing in the situation of dosing the impact based on individual characteristics, depending on the signal read by the leader of defining social expectations. This theory assumes that people have a tendency to divide others into categories encountered in the society that operates the terms “we” and “they” as a source of positive self-esteem due to membership in important social groups. This concept is based on the assumption that group membership affects the processes of social perception of subordinates, the appearance of a leader, his power and influence. The more the psychological importance of a groups grows, the more the processes of social identity become the basis of

directing people (the importance of prototypicality rather than leadership characteristics) (Hogg, 2001). In the case of low-interest groups, a greater impact is built on the individual traits of leaders. According to M.A. Hogg, leader effectiveness also depends on his or her social attractiveness. It happens that with the development of the group (organization) and a longer exercise authority leaders can begin to perceive their alienation and lack of impact and defending themselves against losses in their starting position to apply more stringent measures of influence.

According to organizational leaders behavior theories we can assume that leadership talent is assigned by co-workers – that is the sum of ideas a leader should possess supported by their activities in line with expectations – perceived to be the “naturalness” of a person, and not “artificial” meaning that they are inept to adapt to the requirements of the environment.

Consequently, the present analysis, it is assumed for the purpose of this article, that talent leadership is based on the flexibility of interdisciplinary skills (competency) requirements of enrolling in a social environment.

The differences in expectations towards organizational leaders existing in chosen CEE countries according to their national character

An interesting benchmark for analyzed representatives of the three sectors of the Polish economy can be the expectations of CEE countries employees and future managers towards organizational leaders. To understand the character of each country and the typicality of the whole region of Eastern Europe, before the presentation of the results of international surveys is important to present information about “national character” as a determinant of differences in expectations existing in chosen national cultures.

Cultural determinants

Many studies of cultural differences in the social sciences use the term “national character” – having, according to some authors – a great influence on the development and organization of social life. The content of this concept is usually typical socially efficient attitudes and typical organizational skills – but always culturally, historically diverse and could be a relatively constant feature that occurs more frequently in one group than in others (Haromszeki, Jarco, 2012:194-213).

The methodological question arises in this context: whether it is legitimate to talk about “the specifics of the societies of Eastern Europe (including the region of Central Eastern Europe often perceived as people with similar characteristics)”. It can be assumed, according to many different specialists in this domain, that the concept of “national character” in general can relate to the national community (Kłoskowska, 1957: 10). The term “national character” and “regional CEE typicality” as some theoretical categories allow to identify and compare the ethnic com-

munities and understand their actions. There is rich scientific literature about this question (Lewandowski, 1995: 10-11).

This position seems to be closest to the present consideration of the genesis of a typical eastern specificities of developing countries. “Typicality” for these countries often is understood as a determined layout of social relations, organizational and entrepreneurial skills, level of social trust etc. These are patterns of behavior common for the majority, historically shaped and perpetuated through generations. This concept doesn’t analyze specific features of individuals, but models of thinking, valuing and behaving sharing the majority in social and economic life.

This “typicality” is result of many different historical conditions, especially in days after the Second World War, which have had a great importance in shaping the identity of societies of the Eastern Bloc Area. Multifaceted transformation in Eastern Europe that has occurred over the last twenty years, consisted of moving from a centrally planned socialist economy to a free market economy. Lack of civil liberties, imposed consensus, lack of competitiveness or policy of full employment and low wages that characterized the preceding period, encouraged stagnation and perpetuate the passive-claim attitudes. These determinates weren’t conducive for perception of civic activity as autotelic value (Haromszeki, Jarco, 2012:194-213). That state of consciousness generated later demanding attitudes and ineffective way that many people coped in the new and dynamically changing reality. Without a doubt, political changes have given many people the opportunity to demonstrate their own invention and organizational skills. Self-realization through hard work has become the social norm in many circles. The model of man absorbed and devoted to work which is common in western countries, naturally moved to the post-socialist countries. Professional and social activity has become a more important goal, than other dimensions in life.

A new period in Central Eastern Europe history, which started with many economic and social problems was a time of decreasing trust in many organizational relations. It should be added that trust in the Real Socialism Period was on a very low level, because of many different factors, for example: society was divided into two categories – power (and its fans) and opposition. It was so difficult to understand who they could believe. On the other hand there were different – closer and more informal relationships, which disappeared after 1989, when competition started in the labor market and showed unpropitious economic conditions like unemployment, inflation and sense of injustices in relationships with the owners of companies (top managers) and employees.

Trust is an essential component of leadership relations. The societies of such countries as Poland, Czech Republic, Slovakia and Romania have to “start learning” a culture of trust.

Similarities and differences

What expectations towards organizational leaders are dominating the CEE? There are some similarities which will confirm the still existing “Eastern Block Mentality”, but also new directions appropriate to modern society. There are also some differences which show the “national character” of each society as a result of existing differences of values.

The Globe Studies showed that managers from CEE for example Polish and Czech are more assertive, self-confident, with the need for power than managers from North Western Europe. They used (1996/1997) authoritarian style of management (Koopman, Maczynski, Den Hartog, Witkowski, and 48 European co-authors, 2001: 7-22). The study of J. Maczynski (which used the same research tool as in Globe) conducted in 2010 and 2011 in Poland confirms that the authoritarian style is used more often than it was over decade ago. Many different conditions cause situations that employees prefer working relationships in which managers make decisions and take complete responsibility (J. Mączyński, D. Wyspiański, 2011:7-18).

The Korn/Ferry Institute “Emerging markets, emerging leaders. A Talent and Leadership Study of Central and Eastern Europe” (2009) shows that in CEE expectations towards organizational leaders in researching countries discover some similarities and differences.

The similarities were observed in the following expectations:

- Knowledge of the English language (and other foreign languages) and the skill of using them.
- In general, respondents felt that their countries were short of qualified talent.
- Most of respondents felt that this situation is getting better than it was ten years ago.
- 70 percent of respondents thought that leadership skills could not be learnt.
- 60 percent of respondents said that the role of the leader is significantly more important today than it was ten years ago.
- Respondents said that leaders are short-term minded and more focused on empathy than on technical intelligence, but over 60 percent of respondents said that leaders have become more focused on strategy and more involved in talent management than ten years ago.
- Over 70 percent of respondents said that their companies are not engaging their employees in formal development programs.

Scientists representing the Korn/Ferry Institute found also the differences presented below:

- Almost 70 percent of respondents in the Czech and Slovak Republics felt that their countries were short of executive talent. Less than 45 percent of respondents in Poland felt the same way.

- Over 60 percent of the Czech and Slovak Republics respondents said that their educational institutions were failing in leadership skills learning processes. In Poland, almost 70 percent of respondents said that “their institutions were equipping their graduates with the necessary leadership skills”.
- Almost 10 percent in the case of the Czech and Slovak Republics there are organizations with formal employee development programs. According to analyzing data, the situation is much better in Poland – almost 30 percent of companies have implemented formal employee development programs.
- When respondents were asked “whether talent management programs helped to improve employee satisfaction, engagement, and retention, those from the Czech and Slovak Republics were in strong agreement with the statement than those who responded from other countries”.

There are also interesting outcomes of the study “Values and Leadership Expectations of Future Managers from Transforming Societies” (2011). Authors show expectations of future organizational leaders in CEE – similarities and differences.

The set of the similar characteristics consists of results presented below:

- In the Czech Republic and Romania the most important expectations towards organizational leaders is to be an effective bargainer (negotiate effectively, intelligently and always were well informed)
- In Czech, Slovakia and Romania preferred leadership dimension is team oriented leadership. Charismatic leadership was joint first in the Czech Republic and Romania.

Authors of the described study found out more differences than similarities in analyzing samples which consists of representatives of chosen societies. Those features, skills and attitudes are listed differently in the Czech Republic, Slovakia and Romania.

According to the Czech respondents the expected organizational leaders apart from bargainers should be inspirational, diplomatic and boost morale, decisive, communicative, trustworthy, interested in temporal events and act logically. They should also be dynamic which means highly involved, energetic and enthused, visionary, team integrator. (Compared with middle managers from the Czech Republic, several East European countries e. g. Hungary, Poland and Slovenia of GLOBE project in 2004, Czech Students give less emphasis on team-oriented and participative leadership behavior).

Slovaks are definitely more people oriented than other nations being a part of the research sample. According to their expectations the most effective and worthy leader to follow has these characteristics: kindness toward others, the ability to unify people, diplomacy, visionary, inspirational, and administratively competent, with personal integrity, performance oriented and decisive, should think for future and be strongly performance oriented through empowering team-work and

team-spirit, should empower decentralization, informal relations and lose control in organizational environment, should invite their subordinates taking initiatives; sustain participation of team members in decision-making as well as pragmatic and open relationships in teams.

Romanian future managers, like Czechs, admitted that an effective leader should be, besides a bargainer, diplomatic, intelligent, communicative, administratively skilled, coordinator, inspirational, be able to motivate, trustworthy, decisive, informed, team builder and dependable.

Methods

Introduction

This is a pilot study, which will continue in the future. Prepared tool will be used to examine employees in the three sectors of the Polish economy in many different organizations (public – including local government, private – including companies after transformation from public enterprise, NGO's – large organizations with many branches and small organizations existing in local communities).

Research problem

The research problem in this study *are the similarities and differences in expectations towards organizational leaders in the three sectors of the Polish economy.*

Additionally studies of different expectations towards organizational leaders in several countries in CEE.

General research questions

1. What are the expectations (characteristics and behavior) of public organizations employees in Poland towards organizational leaders?
2. What are the expectations (characteristics and behavior) of private organizations employees in Poland towards organizational leaders?
3. What are the expectations (characteristics and behavior) of NGO's employees in Poland towards organizational leaders?

Research methods

The pilot study was conducted in Poland (especially in Lower Silesia). The method used was the questionnaire interview method (PAPI).

Questionnaire

The questionnaire used collected information from interviews conducted from 2006 from many different organizations: public, private and NGO's. The prior studies in this field do not have the form of a standardized research tool – they

were more related with interviews or observation. There are also questions, which ask about some individual features (personality traits and skills) and behavior according to sets of characteristics proposed by different scientists (after their studies) from 1948.

The questionnaire contains questions which included:

- What makes a talented leader?
- In the period of your employment have you worked with someone you would call a talented leader?
- At what level of management was the manager you thought was talented?
- In your opinion do other employees have the same perception of a talented leader?
- What steps has the organization taken for the manager, who you called a gifted leader?
- If you are looking for a person ideally suited to lead an entire organization or its various departments, divisions and teams – which attributes and behavior should they poses?

Respondents had the possibility to choose one or more answers (depending on the question) from a set prepared for them which was based on previous research experiences.

Sample

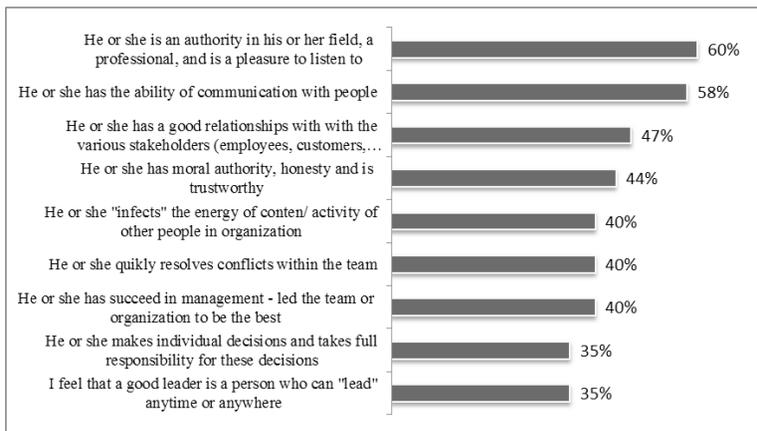
In the pilot studies purposive sampling was used. The main criteria is: *variety of opinions*. The study was chosen from employees of various public (national and local), private (new and transformed state-owned enterprises) and non-governmental (large with many branches and small existing according to areas of expectations and needs of local communities) organizations participated in a pilot study – all of which operate in the region of Lower Silesia. A total of questioned employees 170 (44% from the public sector, 46% from the private sector and 10% from NGO's). The process of conducting these pilot studies allowed us to collect more information about employees expectations towards organizational leaders and the number of existing leaders in different organizations in Poland. These results will be the foundation of a tool prepared for a future study project of about 5000 employees of different organizations according the quota selection (amount of different organizations in each sector, their structure and level of employment).

In the public sector 56% respondents were up to 35 years of age, 40% were 35-55 years of age and 4% were over 55. 72% were women and 28% men. 93% had graduated from University and 7% have a high school degree. Of the private sector respondents – 33% were under the age of 35, 56% were between 35-55 and 11% were over 55. 58% were female and 42% male, 60% had graduated from university and 40% have a high school degree. NGO: 40% were up to 35, 40% were between 35-55 and 20% over 55. 60% were women and 40% men. 70 % had graduated from university and 30% have a high school degree. Data was collected from July 2012.

Talented leaders – the results of pilot studies conducted in organizations from three sectors of the polish economy

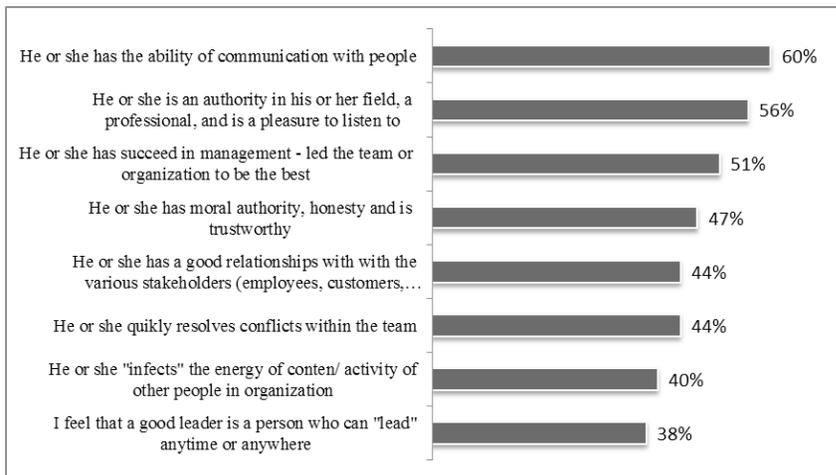
According to this study there are important differences between expectation towards organizational leaders existing in the three sectors of the Polish economy. Because of the process of modification of public organization which has had a place since 2004 (influence of EU funds expectations and ISO 9001 programs) they became closer to private organizations. Only NGOs still differ strongly from other organizations existing in the Polish economy (Figures 1,2, and 3).

Figure 1. What makes a talented leader – public sector?



Source: own study

Figure 2. What makes a talented leader – private sector?



Source: own study

Figure 3. What makes a talented leader – NGOs?



Source: own study

Respondents answered that it is very difficult to meet a gifted organizational leader, but during their professional career they have met:

- a few talented leaders (16% answers in public, 33% in private and 40% w NGOs sector),
- only one talented leader (47% answers in public and private organizations and 60% in NGOs),

Respondents who didn't meet any talented leaders work in public (37%) and private (20%) organizations.

Different character of NGOs causes people who create and coordinate activities in local communities are treated as leaders, because they find followers without using marital incentives. These results prove again that there are real differences between NGOs and public/private organizations and important changes which have had a place in last 10 years since Poland joined the EU and didn't change the character of the leadership relationship.

Most gifted leaders work as first line managers (40% answers in public, 47% in private organizations and 60% in NGOs). Additionally respondents met a gifted leaders on the mid-level (16% answers in public, 38% in private organizations and 30% in NGOs) and top-level (19% answers in public, 22% in private organizations and 10% in NGOs).

The similarities in expectations are most visible in NGOs. 80% respondents confirm that employees of their organization agreed with them and have the same impressions about their leader. The same opinion had 68% respondents of private and 52% respondent of public organizations.

Respondents had to choose activities which were taken by the manager, who they called a gifted leader. The interviewed people decided that the most popular/

frequent was: provided leaders with great opportunities to make decisions (30% answers in public, 44% in private and 50 % in NGOs). Other less frequent answers:

- appreciated the leaders success / efficiency and effectiveness (26% in public, 22% in private and 50 % in NGOs),
- provided the leaders with great opportunities to develop (23% in public, 22 % in private and 30% in NGOs),
- appreciated the leaders good relationships with employees (5% in public, 33% in private and 50% in NGOs),
- stopped him / her leaving the organization (16% in private organization, 20% in NGOs),
- recruited him / her (16% in private and 10% in NGOs),

It could be observed that a less rational approach in public organizations, in which one doesn't appreciate good relationships with employees (important part of the leadership relationship) and there weren't appropriate actions related with recruitment and retention of a gifted leaders.

There are also differences in acceptance of sets of features presented in literature since 1948. The most popular conceptions in public sector is built on research of Chelpa and Obój as follows:

- 51 % - control of their own emotions and their expression, communication, team integration task forces around objectives, negotiating solutions to the needs and interests of the differences of people, the critical reception of new ideas, determination, desire for achievement / mastery, taking considered risks, responsibility, self-awareness – S. Chelpa 2002 (Listwan, 2010:165),
- 49 % - self-confidence, ambition, focusing on achievement and success, assertiveness, stress tolerance, perseverance and determination, intelligence, courage, the ability to create a vision of a desired state, creativity and innovation, tact and diplomatic talents, quick decision-making, ability to organize tasks and delegating duties - K. Obój 1997 (Kuc, 2006: 382-383).

The above presented conceptions were created by psychologists and they take into account different features related with emotional intelligence and building good relationships with employees.

The conception chosen by respondents from the private sector is more related with efficiency and efficacy in management according to the appropriate skills helpful in specific conditions. That's why in the private sector as many as 73% chose personality traits, according to the concept of J. C. Williams, A. J. DuBrin, H. L. Sisk 1985 (Kuc, 2006: 383-384): problem-solving skills, ability to find good jobs, professional competence, understanding people and situations, self-confidence, a high level of authority and autonomy needs, low - the need for affiliation, a sense of humor, assertiveness, sensitivity and tact, providing support, a high level of expectations to subordinates.

Very interesting results were observed in the NGOs sector in which respondents chose two conceptions: the first – psychological – closely related with emotional intelligence, and the second – modern HRM scientist proposition – which includes qualifications and situational approach to efficient leadership. This answer could be an effect of changing market conditions (competition for UE funds) which inspired using appropriate personality traits, knowledge and skills in specific situations and the stable essence of NGOs – very emotional and related with a passionate approach. Frequent answers were (70% respondents of NGOs) are sets of the features presented below:

- Self-confidence, ambition, focus on achievement and success, assertiveness, stress tolerance, perseverance and determination, intelligence, courage, the ability to create a vision of a desired state, creativity and innovation, tact and diplomatic talents, quick decision-making, ability to organize tasks and delegating duties - K. Oblój 1997 (Kuc, 2006: 382-383).
- The ability to work with people, responsibility, the need to achieve results, the experience of leadership in the initial stages of their careers, a wide range of experience, good negotiation skills, the willingness to take risks, innovative ideas and the ability to adapt management style to any prevailing situation [Armstrong, 1999:226-227].

The study confirms some very interesting tendencies, but because this is a pilot study results cannot be generalized. There is a plan to start testing this questionnaire in a representative sample in the near future.

The expectations towards organizational leaders in the Czech Republic and Romania are more related to results of the conducted studies in the three sectors of Polish economy, than needs of future managers in Slovakia. The international research would be conducting in the three sectors of different CEE countries in the near future.

This is very important information for the HRM scientists and HR experts in Polish companies that Polish respondents of The Kern/ Ferry Institute Study are convinced that they can acquire “necessary leadership skills” in the Polish system of business education.

Conclusion

Unifying patterns of organizational behavior in different sectors of the economy affect the perception of organizational leaders. The results of perceptions of talented leaders confirm a practical dimension of social expectations in this regard. The respondents from the public sector appreciated above all the professionalism (understood as having highly developed technical skills) and interpersonal skills - especially in the field of efficient communication with various stakeholders, especially subordinates. In the private sector expectations were similar. The main difference

is due to a much more pragmatic approach to leadership activities. In organizations which are profit-oriented, it is noted that a leader can be considered as talented, if they achieved success that had positive effects on the entire organization. Responses from NGOs, as expected, differ strongly from those given by respondents from other sectors of the economy, because in addition to communication skills, they mentioned: morality, honesty, trust and passion in the pursuit of an objective.

When the tasks of an organization are more varied and demand more commitment, the easier it is to identify a person known by the employees' as "a gifted leader". Results show that they are mostly in non-governmental organizations, and they feature less in public institutions. In every sector of the Polish economy in the region of Lower Silesia the easiest way to find a component leader of an organization is at the lowest management level. In addition to the public sector, the respondents admits that similar views on some leaders are the same as their colleagues.

Activities in the field of human resource management, described in the earlier part of this article, rarely deviate from developed programs within an organization. It is difficult to observe employees activities supporting an outstanding manager (the leader of an organization), and encouraging them to maintain a high level of commitment to the objectives of an organization.

Most of the respondents in the three sectors of the economy admitted that the organizations strived not to disturb or upset a talented leader and appreciated their leaders success but rarely offered solutions for them requiring financial commitment or a change to the structure of an organization. The process of identifying talented leaders is mostly not connected with the real working environment – existing only as a set of impractical guidelines.

The participants in the Polish case study expected from the leader: professionalism, commitment and good relations with employees. The people selected in the survey realized that in the real world, you have to settle for much less than in the ideal world. The role of talented leaders is shaping the organizational social and business environment in order to obtain a high level of satisfaction and commitment of employees and to achieve results beyond the expectations of an organization. Maybe so, practical understanding of talent will mean that organizations will no longer be able to create abstract solutions that will support the activities of a "real" instead of "undefined" talents required to be a good leader.

A common situation to the results of the conducted study presented to the international studies in the CEE region. Respondents from Central Eastern European countries have the impression that there are not many real organizational leaders. They know exactly what set of features, knowledge and skills talented leaders should have but the real problem could result from dominative conviction that "leadership skills could not be learnt". This situation gets worse if we consider the information that organizations very rarely implement real and variable talent man-

agement and leader development programs (some of the CEE countries have bigger problems with this issue than Poland).

Young respondents – future managers present lists of features (skills and knowledge) and styles of management which are a guarantee of success in their cultural circumstances. Whether this analysis is a description of the future organizational reality, it will depend on future managers (respondents) real attitudes and behavior. The “Western World of Business” already knows that the best solution for permanent organizational success is implementing and refreshing different development programs for example talent and succession management. Central Eastern European societies went through many changes in the last two decades. They have reduced the “competence gap” between them and the Western World and although this situation is not always visible, the amount of pragmatic people is increasing. The result of this process could be in future organizations creating their own solutions appropriate to present and plan conditions instead of keeping an ineffective alternative – copying foreign practices or not doing anything.

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Feminism – difficult conversation

Abstract: Feminism is a conflict between the female identity and female differences. Yet, all feminist thoughts aim at protecting specific subjects – women. In its current, rather chaotic form it allows to discover, understand and learn something from women who live and work in different countries. Feminism is not monolithic. It comprises a large array of attitudes, interests and ideas. These in turn, are differently represented across countries. Women took and still take various paths in combating inequality, therefore perhaps it would be wise to refer to ‘feminisms’ instead of a singular form ‘feminism’. My goal is to present a concise summary of a particular set of meanings of this term, ones that are relatable in the broadest sense.

Key words: feminism, philosophy of feminism, different approaches to feminism

Introduction

From its inception feminism drew its energy from its supra-national coverage as a social movement, an ideology, and as a theory. Overcoming national and continental borders. Influencing the life and mentality of people of diverse cultures, ethnic communities, and social levels. The text shows that the phenomenon encompass a wide range of attitudes, behaviours, and strategies. Therefore, how to unite women with dividing differences, and particular using this differences? This article is an attempt to show the internal dialog of feminism. It used the method of differing replies of feminists to recurring questions. Exhibiting the internal dynamics of the philosophy of feminism travelling on explored and unexplored paths; and history to emphasize equally the limits, diversity, and wealth of open horizons. It also shows an attempt to match the different types of feminism in cultural paradigms.

Women make up half of the world’s population. They were born free and intellectually independent. Hence, the question poses itself, why must they fight for

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something that is theirs, and the right to manifest it? J.S. Mills points out that a division into a two-cast society where one group seems to be born predetermined to rule over the other, this being due to gender or for that matter any other basis for division, is always a source of anti-social behaviour and abnormalities, which are greatly damaging for both those oppressed and those in power [1970, p. 98]. What is modern feminism? One can come across great difficulties when defining this term. Feminism is not monolithic. It comprises a large array of attitudes, interests and ideas [Hannam J., 2010, p. 17]. These in turn, are differently presented across countries. Women took and still take various paths in combating inequality, therefore perhaps it would be wise to refer to 'feminisms' instead of a singular form 'feminism'. My goal is to present a concise summary of a particular set of meanings to this term, ones that are relatable in the broadest sense. Feminism – (Lat. woman) is a term used to describe a collection of ideas which negate the concept of gender inequality. K. Offen uses a geological metaphor when referring to feminism. She compares feminism to a wave of discontent that washes over the old sedimented shore, which in her understanding symbolises patriarchy [2000, pp. 25-26]. It is also accurate to relate this term to organised activity aiming at fixing the flawed reality of everyday life. These are the socio-political movements striving to make women equal in all aspects. E. Krasowska claims that feminism is not only a doctrine able to largely shape people's beliefs and political, social, philosophical or aesthetic attitudes, but as she also states, it is, despite numerous attempts to marginalise it, a resilient and diverse educational movement working on revising the old and new paradigms [2005, p. 10]. What is more, feminism works on building new views of the world, tracking its own history and analysing its discourse. Just like any other theory which has stood the test of time, feminism has its past, present and future. The analysis of this phenomenon reveals that not all feminists think alike. Feminism – regarded as a type of philosophy, an emancipating social movement that has its origins in the French Revolution or a certain lifestyle – seems to escape simple categorisation. What accompanies feminism is the abundance of contradictory terms used to describe it. Consequently, we hear about feminism which is liberal, radical, moderate, Marxist, psychoanalytic, existential, postmodern, multicultural, ecological, cybernetic, corporate etc. Is it possible then to establish some common ground for all the aforementioned categories?

Waves of feminism

The beginnings of feminist thought can probably be traced to Ancient times. Even Hipparchia, the representative of Cynics advocated for equality of the sexes. Mentioning the mythical island of Lesbos and its resident the poet Saffo is also accurate. What is also interesting, is the way Diotyma influenced Socrates' life. Moving forward in history, M. Sakowska mentions twenty four great women of

the Medieval period who contributed to the development of culture [2005]. In the Common Era the emergence of the idea of equality of the sexes is connected with the Enlightenment period. In her book devoted to the first wave of feminism O. Banks analyses the work of ninety eight female and eighteen male feminists [1986, pp. 106-127]. In *Vindication of the Rights of Women* [1772] M. Wollstonecraft states that if women were given the same possibilities of education as men, they would become wiser members of society and better mothers. In addition, they would not find it difficult to find employment [Hannam J., 2010, p. 33]. In England and France, intelligent and educated women began to create a new reality. The French Revolution in 1789 was a pivotal point, the beginning of change. It brought about an important question, namely what does it mean to actively build the new republic? Unfortunately, feminist activity caused suspicion and controversy. In 1793 women were banned from active participation in public life. They were not allowed to take part in any meetings or gatherings. They were also not given the right to any forms of manifestos. Napoleon perpetuated this approach. It is visible in his code of laws from 1807, which was implemented by the Italians, Belgians, Dutch and Germans. Men were given all the rights and liberties towards their spouses, their inheritance and the children. What existed in Great Britain was a law giving a husband ownership over his wife. Fortunately, women managed to unite and gain strength through the works of such male intellectuals as J.S. Mill, H. Fawcett, R. Pankhurst or Ch. Dilke. In his essay *The Subjection of Woman* J.S. Mill opposes and negates the rules by which the two sexes coexisted [1995, p. 285]. Postulates emerged for women to have access to education, voting and also for a change in the inheritance laws. Feminist activity differs from country to country. The abolitionist movement had a great influence on American feminism. Slavery was the vital binding issue for both these factions. As J. Hannam presents it women seemed to have found an analogy between their own legal, emotional and physical enslavement to their husbands and that of slaves [2010, p. 38]. Hence, referring to their own plight they referred to the metaphor of slavery. The fundamental associations working for women's enfranchisement were set up in the sixties of the 19th century. In 1868 S. B. Anthony and E. C. Stanton published a magazine titled *Revolution*. Later, in 1869 they established the National Woman Suffrage Association. Both women inspired female activists in other countries. The National Society for Woman's Suffrage was an organisation formed in Great Britain. The eighties and nineties of the 19th century saw liberation movements in New Zealand, Australia, Canada and the Scandinavian countries. In Germany the liberal groups gained popularity after the abdication of chancellor Bismarck in 1890. In Russia women also took advantage of the period of political instability. The beginning of the 20th century was dominated by the suffragist movement. The suffragists claimed that mankind could greatly benefit from active womanhood. They used motherhood and the future of the human race as

supporting arguments. M. Fawcett was a pioneering individual who stressed that the feminist initiative is the most important type of movement as it aims at liberating the largest group of individuals, half of humanity [Offen K., 2000, p. 2]. In Great Britain suffragettes¹ became quite an active group. They chose quite drastic methods of protest, such as hunger strikes, manifestations and vandalism. What is more, they refused to pay taxes. One of the head activists was E. Pankhurst. These women presented a new side of womanhood. Womanhood that is strong and determined. At the end of the 19th century the situation began to change. In 1862 in Sweden and 1869 in Great Britain wealthy, single women gained the right to vote in the local council elections. In the United States in 1869 in Wyoming, Utah, Colorado and Idaho women could vote at a state level. New Zealand (1893) was the leader in giving females full voting rights. After this success the next step was to improve women's living conditions. Feminism was a bit different in the colonial countries. The only aim was to separate themselves from the West. Therefore, a woman should boycott all western values. A traditional family model was greatly desired. The ones opposing such trends were women from wealthy families who obtained education in the West. Women such as H. asz-Szarawi and S. Nabarawi. Yet, despite a certain degree of opposition the traditions passed down from generation to generation is still dominant.

When analysing the first wave of feminism, N. Krzyżanowska highlights the profound influence of the British, French and American activists. She also points out that the movement was quite diverse. She mentions three ideologies which all talk about the need for a change of women's place in society. These are: feminism for equal rights; connected with abolitionist activity, the evangelical movement putting a great emphasis on women's traits which could be in high demand in public life and also socialism [2012, pp. 81-82]. What is clearly visible here is a shift from using liberalism as inspiration and turning to socialism instead. The first wave of feminism was without a doubt the longest of the three waves discussed. Its aim was to achieve formal equality through obtaining political rights. The second-wave feminism focused more on feminist awareness. It combined activism with the theoretical approach. Controversial texts appeared, for instance: *Second sex* by S. de Beauvoir. This female philosopher claimed that we are not born women, but we become them. It happens, as she stresses, through cultural oppression [2003, p. 299]. Thanks to access to education young people have significantly broadened their horizons, hence, limiting their role to one of a wife and mother was becoming more and more difficult. A large number of them began working. However, the work conditions left a lot to be desired. Activists in a few countries demanded equal salaries, access to education and employment, free contraception, possibil-

¹ Suffragette – a pejorative term used for members of the WSPU who disturbed Winston Churchill's election campaign. The term was first used by the Daily Mail in 1906. The word quickly began to be used when talking about those engaged in active boycotting.

ity of abortion on demand and twenty four hour nursery care. They boycotted beauty competitions. They were against cultivating a certain idea of beauty. They perceived such events as aiming at objectifying women's bodies. Their second focus was fighting intolerance towards homosexuals and lesbians. They did is according to the motto *Private is political* [Hannam J., 2010, p. 153]. The second-wave movement was not limited to Europe and North America. What could have also been observed is for instance the activity of Japanese women. In the Scandinavian countries the activists' demands were quickly fulfilled, thus manifestations died down. Art was significant for the second-wave feminism as it liberated from any boundaries and limitations. Art was all about deforming, playing with meanings and concepts. It waged a war with the too scrupulously defined, "real, accurate" reality [Nead L., 1992]. The result of feminist activity was for the United Nations to declare the year 1975 the International Year of Women, and years 1976-1985 the decade of women. In Third World countries the activists aimed at fulfilling their goals as well. Often due to the lack of men, they had to provide for their families. They distanced themselves from the postulates of *white feminism* [Bator J., 2001 p. 11]. b. hooks criticised feminists stating that they represent only a limited group of people. You cannot perceive what white women say as universalism. Up until this day there is an ongoing discussion for instance on the subject of Muslim women wearing headscarves. A burqa symbolises the lack of freedom. In turn females who wear them say that white women's freedom is a sheer illusion as they are still used as sexual objects in the media, magazines, and advertisements. It seems impossible to reconcile these two different approaches. A battle of arguments and resentment had begun. Despite the apparent differences, however, what grew on both sides was the awareness of the female body. Physical abuse came up as a topic of discussion. All these activities have changed the world for the modern generations of women who now live in a better reality where they can think of self-development. The second wave combines both production and reproduction, about what is private and what is public. It concentrated also on the sources of women's oppression, applying not only Marxist theory but also psychoanalysis. This era of feminism sought to find out why a female is like a stranger in the modern male-dominated society.

The issues that could not be resolved in the nineties of the 20th century became the focus of the Third-wave feminism. It is still the same today. Modern feminism refuses to operate in binary categories: feminism versus real womanhood. As W. Welsch suggests, this time feminism is based on diversity rather than uniformity [1998, p. 260]. This can be associated with postmodernism. There is no fear in exploring. The new movement exposes a dialogue of contradictory factions. How to unite women in spite of these divides or perhaps even by their means?

Faces of feminism

As a social and political project rather than just a philosophical aspect feminism is an example of something great and important [Rorty R., 1991, p. 6]. That is why, quickly presenting women a way to better their own social situation seems right. The philosophical approach raises a lot of doubts, as it is hard to talk about it in terms of being progressive. This is the internal dialogue between the feminism of great tales and difference feminism. The former mainly concentrates on the patriarchal role in society. Here, referring to oppression aims at discarding the differences between male and female. In the case of the latter type of feminism this repression is perceived rather as a possible source of positive and revolutionary diversity, which should be celebrated through different forms of creation [Bator J., 2001, p. 26].

The feminist intellectual movement was born in the Enlightenment period, yet the name itself was first used in the 19th century. It was conceived as an internal form of criticism towards liberalism. In *The Subjection of Women* J.S. Mill presents an interesting argument, namely that no one is able to say that all men are smarter or stronger than all women. Hence, the fact that an ordinary woman cannot do the same things as a common man should not mean that women ought to be forbidden to make attempts to do the same things [1995, p. 30]. Intellectual progress is supposed to blur the biological limitations and gender differences. Consequently, this can lead to social, political and economical equality. Liberating women was a fundamental element of humanism of the Enlightenment period. In *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman* M. Wollstonecraft says she wants to refer to her own sex as rational human beings rather than as women are used to being referred to as though they were inferior or children not capable of making their own decisions [1973, p. 40]. An idea of feminist emancipation was born according to which the main goal was to eliminate any form of rule of a man over man, be it in liberalism, democracy or socialism. A belief in an entity absolutely free from any limitations was placed under criticism. As T. Nagel suggests the ideas promoted through the philosophy of the Enlightenment era came from nowhere, neglecting the historical and cultural determinants. During a more in-depth analysis one can find that under this universalist demand for emancipation lie the interest of race, class and gender. The rootless ideology becomes in fact a notion linked with a specific time and place. That is why the Enlightenment thought has been and still is tried and undermined by the ideas of postmodernism. Equality and liberty in the case of the former mean adhering to male rules and regulations. One has to say farewell to the illusion of humanism. A human is synonymous with man.

The feminism of postmodernism states that there is no universal (male) truth. On the contrary, there are many and none of them is privileged through gender. The postmodern feminist gains inspiration from Derrida's deconstruction, Foucault's poststructuralism and post-Freudian; mainly Lacan version of psychoanaly-

sis [Bator J., 2001, p. 38]. The focus has been shifted from the oppressive reality of social life to the reality of text. The emancipatory dimension is simply interpreting tradition in a revolutionary way. This provides a possibility of looking at the language from a woman's perspective, as different and positive. We can find the feminist reinterpretations of language in the works of J. Kristeva, L. Irigaray, H. Cixous and J. Butler. The last of the aforementioned female philosophers challenges the gender distinction of women, their gender identity [Bator J., 2001, p. 217]. The thesis put forward by the author of *Gender Trouble* is that of gender performativity. J. Butler points out that gender is not a grammatical subject possessing a fixed set of attributes, but an act, a result (without an ontological status), expression, a dramatic construction of meaning or a display of an unstable nature. The centre of gravity is moved from a subject as a manifestation of its essence to a subject that is on the move, in transformation, during the development process. Instead of looking at features such as the reproductive ability the attention is paid to the reality of what is symbolic (just like in the case of Lacan). This is mainly the language, the most central tool in the construction of man and woman. This idea is especially articulated by J. Kristeva's speaking subject. The language is not an expression of a pre-existential subjectivity. On the contrary, the subjectivity of an individual is a language structure. According to J. Kristeva, womanhood is not in possession of the individual but that of the language, hence its meaning cannot be fixed [1984, pp. 25-26].

Too many works on the subject of deconstructive feminism finish with a suggestion that reality does not exist outside the linguistic territory. Is it perhaps time for a new order of terms? In the past feminists successfully used the word woman in their attempts to improve the situation of many other women. In the case of postmodern feminism there is no one rule on how to be a woman. A discussion is also taking place around the modern and postmodern grouping of important feminist works, for instance *The Second Sex* by S. de Beauvoir [2003]. E. Grosz and J. Butler classify this title differently. The basic question posed is Who is a woman? The answer received is that one becomes a woman and is not born one. Even if we acknowledge the material aspect of something that defines our existence here and now, we still must also recognise the abstractive nature of its sense and boundaries. Existentialism was originally recognised by Beauvoir as a method and ethic of thinking, which enabled her to show; the most important, in her point of view, idea that a woman is an objectified stranger across all cultures. Existence requires the presence of a body, which in turn belongs to the material world and is a viewpoint of the world. The biological features gain such significance as is given to them by people themselves. Biology provides society with facts, that people interpret in their own way so that these can work according to ones needs [Putnam Tong R., 2002, p. 237]. The author of *The Second Sex* admits that our body is to a small extent of

biological character. Mainly, it is a social entity, because it is thanks to society that we can comprehend its meaning [Środa M., 2012, p. 135]. As a philosopher S. de Beauvoir remains faithful to existentialism, yet as a feminist she feels the limitations existing in this philosophy. Different interpretations of this work remain extremely valuable, they provide a way of finding oneself in the feminist past, present and future [Putnam Tong R., 2002, p. 237].

Following the dispute between the feminism of great stories and difference feminism, J. Bator highlights that the followers of the first type concentrate mostly on the analysis of the level of sexism and the patriarchy. The postulates formulated by this type of feminists aimed at eliminating specific social barriers which made women's private and work life difficult. Difference feminism devoted their attention to phallogocentrism, which E. Grosz defines as a series of discursive procedures, a strategy placing a representative of each gender in the model of a human being which actually corresponds to what is male [Bator J., 2001, pp. 47-49]. The representatives of intellectual feminism extracted what had been hidden in the text. All feminist activity displays a clash between wanting to prove universal 'scientific' facts and a certain tendency to concentrate on what is metaphorical and subjective.

Trying to agree

In the philosophical thought an objection appears both towards the post-structural and deconstructionalist ideas of negating humanism, as well as towards the naive postulates of completing it with the omitted notion of womanhood. N. Fraser believes that you should protect the best elements from each paradigm, which are useful in creating the basis of feminist philosophy. J. Bator assesses this attitude and labels it as carefully postmodern like. She claims that Fraser decides to protect critical feminism in relation to the tradition of Enlightenment but does not abandon its traditional appeal for emancipation [Fraser N., 1994, p. 167]. The history of male domination, open to local discussion, protects against falling into the trap of universal metanarrative. This view can be characterised as operational essentialism. According to N. Fraser, a practice of pragmatic and fallibilistic feminism combines the best of feminism without coming across the clash between the critical and postmodern. The way between essentialism and postmodernism combines theory and practice. Similar opinion is shared by A. Snitow, she recognises the paradox of the feminist way of thinking about a woman as a essentialist category and a cultural construct at the same time and how it causes creative tension. The answer to the question: feminism of equality or difference feminism, modernistic or postmodern feminism seems to be an open issue. This discussion is the bases of feminism [1990].

If anti-humanism became the main notion of the feminist theory, there would not be room for speaking of equal rights and dignity. Is it possible that feminism needed de-reconstruction and reconstruction? Perhaps a corporeal concept is the

solution to the various feminist theory dilemmas? The sociologist B.S. Turner labelled the modern society as somatic [1996, p. 2]. The authors of corporal theories expect that these will prove useful, **not only from the epistemological and ontological side but also from the perspective of an equally developing feminist political movement.** What is more, they see the usefulness in their ideas for solving the practical problems, such as pornography, abortion or illnesses like bulimia and anorexia [Hyży E., 2012, p. 19]. E. Grosz claims that reality consists of two separate, self-excluding categories (body and mind). The reluctance towards the body is not an effect of differentiating substance as much as an effect of the way in which the mind and body are perceived. This causes the need to apply a hierarchy. The mind becomes privileged in relation to the body. This devaluation of the body has political consequences for women, as they are defined more through their physicality than men [1994, p. 2]. In the 1995 essay *Space, Time and Perversion* E. Grosz defines the body as a specific, material living combination of tissue, muscles, organs and bone structure which receive shape and form through mental and social inscriptions. A characteristic feature of this body is its biological incompleteness. According to Grosz, it requires social training, and long-term management [1995, p. 104]. In addition, the body is an ambivalent area – both the cause of oppression and a promise for a new emancipatory transformation. The new female subject created here as philosophically independent – provides a source of moral validity for the political feminist movement and paves the way for new ethics. What she does not exclude is a further theoretical development and modification based on the appearing concept. One of these can be cyberfeminism. In her essay *A Manifesto for Cyborgs* J. Haraway [1991] gives way to this phenomenon. The hybridity of cyborgs – the combination between the organism and the machine makes it a useful metaphor, describing the relationship of men and technology. It undermines the common ideas about the body and how natural it is. Cyberspace is an important term. The main representative, F. Wilding defines cyberfeminism as a new wave of post-feminist thought and practice. Moving into cyberspace liberates the women as they are stepping into a new, unlimited area. One can treat the cyberfeminist approach as science fiction literature, which has many followers amongst the younger generation.

However, B. Brook reminds us that due to the fact that bodily theories might seem limited and outdated one can resort to defining and discovering different, new and fresh ideas. Nevertheless, this does not change the fact that the body and the way it is perceived still remains the basic foundation of feminism [Brook B., 1999, p. 155].

The place of feminism in the paradigms of culture

The place of feminism in the study of management is worth considering. This issue can undoubtedly be related to cultural aspects.

Based on cultural paradigms suggested by G. Burrell and G. Morgan: functionalist, interpretive, radical structuralism and radical humanism, one can make an attempt to capture such an amorphous phenomenon as culture. The criteria designating the paradigms are:

- social orientation (regulation v. change)
- objectives concerning the cognition (objective v. subjective) [Sulkowski Ł., 2012, p. 39].

M. Kostera points out that “all the attempts of systematisation teach us first of all the humility in our attempts of organising the world or even its part” [1996, p. 72]. Feminism is making such an attempt. The problems of culture in management are therefore an area where management trends which are alternative to the dominant one could arise and develop.

One of the faces of feminism (radical) is connected with critical trend (*Critical Management Studies*), which concentrates on the problems of the cultural sphere of an organisation. This paradigm is based on an assumption that there exists an objective social reality which requires reconstruction. It derives from philosophical sources which adopt the radical vision of an organisation and management development, which are considered to be the sources of domination and power. The inspiration is sought in the metaphor of panopticon by Bentham, the conception of the class struggle by Marks and symbolic violence by Bourdieu. A crucial point of reference is also the critical theory of communication by Habermas. The issues of study covers the mechanism of power, oppression, instrumentalism and domination. The pursuit of radical change of the position of marginalised groups is the element that links the paradigm of radical structuralism and the feminist trend. One of the most important methods leading to the emancipation of disfavoured groups is to be empowerment, which allows the realisation and putting power in the hands of the oppressed [Sulkowski Ł., 2011, p. 16]. This term indicates support leading to handing over full responsibility and power, therefore, it leads to the realisation and empowerment of the representative of the marginalised group.

The other face of feminism (postmodern) is connected with the paradigm of radical feminism. This is the least homogenous cognitive approach out of all paradigms. It is characterised by: subjectivism, cognitive relativism, academic inconsistency. It is based on philosophical conceptions by: Derrida, Foucault, Lyotard, Rorty, Deleuze. The key problem of reflection is culture described metaphorically. It can be identified with a discourse – if so, it exists only within the language. Therefore, in postmodernism it is difficult to speak about a research method, because it is a mental formation which by definition is anti-system, anti-theoretic, negating all

conceptions of truth. It is intellectual provocation, which uses deconstruction in order to pay attention to epistemological and ethical problems, but which does not give solutions to them.

Other faces of feminism, e.g. existential, corporal or psychoanalytical feminism can be connected with an interpretative paradigm, whereas liberal feminism can be connected with the functionalist paradigm. According to liberal feminists, sexual division of roles is harmful not only to an individual but also to the whole society, since the society makes a loss due to not using female potential.

Feminists are not consistent as to which paradigm should be the leading one. The paradigms which accept the objective cognitive criteria refer to feminism of great tales, whereas the paradigms which accept the subjective cognitive criteria refer to the difference feminism.

Final thoughts

Feminism is a conflict between the female identity and female differences. Yet, all feminist thoughts aim at protecting specific subjects – that is women. In the current, rather chaotic form it allows to discover, understand and learn something from women who live and work in different countries, and women of different ethnicity. The feminist theory is most successful when it reflects life experiences. Women voice different opinions, sometimes even contradictory. Drawing up a map of feminism is still ongoing today. The fact that different faces of feminism allow women to express themselves is valuable in itself. P. Sztompka calls this the sociology of three. That is, the everyday sociology, which is inquisitive and formulates questions to the seemingly simple and logical events and situations encountered daily. It brings to light the daily nonsense which build the essence of everyday reality. This does not discredit the academic feminism actively taking part in the philosophical discourse. The traditional opposites, such as the mind and body, private and collective, gain a lot of meaning after being discussed in terms of feminism. On one hand, the intellectuals seek a common identity for women, one which would be based on their biological and psychological experiences. On the other, they eliminate the body from any discourse at the same time multiplying its cultural and metaphorical images. Feminism became very engaged in modern discourse. This resulted in creating a fresh view of the basic concepts which previously were only subjects for contemplation. Philosophy is an unlimited area of auto-creation for feminists. This is why the feminist thought should not be read in a too straightforward manner. It should not be interpreted as an ideology with an imperfect past. The important key terms are discussed in many ways.

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Women in the IT Management – Analysis Dimensions

Abstract: This paper looks into statistics, classic and modern research of women in the management and of women in Information and Computer Technology (ICT) industry. The subject of women in the management, the effect on the companies and their culture and factors underlying women's management success has been raised in the 70's, but there was not much research into the ICT industry until 90's, with quite significant literature in the subject in the last decade. Based on the literature and current management thinking review paper aims to identify the factors that influence first women choice of ICT as business career and second – women success in the management. The objective is to identify a framework that will be used as a reference in author's qualitative research into woman in the ICT management in different cultures.

Key Words: Women career, gender equality in management, women in management, women in ICT

Introduction

The objective of this paper is to propose a framework for analyzing issues affecting women career in the Information Technology (IT) sector. IT sector belongs to one of the fastest-growing industries/services worldwide. IT sales are reaching the level of approx \$4 trillion and it is estimated that IT will generate 1.7M new jobs [Tandon et al, 2012]. Even in crisis-hit Europe IT jobs are set for 5% growth [European Commission, 2010]. In Poland IT sector sales tripled in last decade to PLN 31bn and IT is expected to grow by 7% annually [Antal, 2013] – at a rate more than double that of the economy growth. With such a growth rate the IT sector is believed to be a major source for new jobs and management careers.

In his more than 20 years professional IT experience, author noted significant differences between countries in IT women's engagement particularly in manage-

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rial roles, underlined by statistically very different levels of women's IT participation (por. Fig. 1). Whereas the subject of women in the management is well researched, the specifics of women in IT (or ICT – Information and Communication Technology sector) management is relatively new, e.g. even simple Google Scholar phrase search brings 9 results for “women in IT management” vs. 24,000 results for “women in management” and “women in ICT” brings just over 900 results.

Researching the high differences in women's IT participation, particularly in senior professional and managerial roles can bring multi-cultural insight into specific organizational and management aspects – organization culture and policies, work conditions, skills and job roles – much beyond state policy issues usually brought to the focus. Those were already noted by Galpin [2002], Huyer et al [2005] and Trauth et al [2008]. Therefore the article looks into proposing a framework for analyzing issues related to women in IT management. The framework is based on analysis of academic research, management consulting reports and industry press publications in both women's vocational choice in IT and women career progress. The article is divided into the following chapters:

1. Women in the management worldwide – current state of women's progress in the management ranks and insight into changing research view on the situation.
2. Women in the IT industry – current state of women's presence in the ICT industry.
3. Framework for women success in the IT management – which pulls together theory to propose classification of factors affecting women IT choice and factors affecting their managerial career.
4. Conclusions – summary of findings.
5. Proposed next research steps – author plans for the framework use.

Women in the management worldwide

Growth of female's job market participation and increased number of women making into management caused „women in the management” to become subject of academic and management research. The US women job market share grew from 29% in 50's [Sloane College, 2009], 38% in the 70's [United States Department of Labor, 2014], to 46% from 90's until today [Catalyst, 2014]. In Poland in the 60's women already represented 44% of all employed [Velkoff, 1995], same as today, with employment rate (percentage of women in employment) remaining around 57.5% [Główny Urząd Statystyczny, 2012]. That rate is actually below EU average 62.6%, the US rate of 65.4% and approx. 77% in Sweden [Eurostat, 2014]. Iceland has one of the highest women employment rates, with 79.5% of females in the employment [Eurostat, 2014]. In Turkey, the woman's share of labor force is still very low at 29% [Turkish Statistical Institute, 2012]. While women employment was growing rapidly, historically there were practically no female managers. In the

US only in 1964 the Civil Rights Act forbade discrimination on the basis of sex as well as race in hiring, promoting, and firing [Congress of the United States, 1964], followed by government actions [National Archives, 2014]. Even if, as late as in the 70's, in the US females were 38% of the labor force, they occupied only 15.9% of managerial position. But, today they fill 51.4% of the management, professionals and related occupations [Catalyst, 2013].

Similarly to labor force participation women management progression differs significantly by countries. In table below we look at developing and developed countries. In Europe author compares Northern with Southern Europe and all that with Poland as an example for EU Enlargement economy. The purpose is not to identify any statistically valid trends, but rather to find examples of opposite situation:

Table 1 - Women in the management worldwide

Country	% of Women in employment	% of Men in employment	Women among professional & technical workers	Women in the management	Women on boards of listed companies
US	64.5%	77%	55%	43% - 51.4%	10%
Canada	74%	81%	56%	37% - 35.7%	6%
France	65.6%	73.7%	47%	39% - 41.3%	18%
Sweden	77.2%	82.2%	51%	32%	17%
Netherlands	71.6%	81.3%	50%	29% - 27% ¹	5%
Italy	49.9%	69.8%	47%	33%	8%
Greece	43.3% ²	62.7%	51%	28%	11%
Poland	57.6%	72.1%	60%	36%	7%
Germany	72.3% ³	81.9%	52%	30%	3%
UK	69.4%	80.5%	48%	35%	7%
Australia	70%	83%	54%	37%	7%
Singapore	63%	83%	45%	31%	N/A
Thailand	70%	85%	56%	24%	N/A
Brazil	65%	85%	52%	36%	9%
Qatar	53%	96%	20%	7%	0%
Turkey	31.8%	75.3%	36%	10%	8%

¹ Increase from 15% in 1992 [Davidson, Burke, 2011]

² Decrease from 52.9% in pre-crisis time [Eurostat, 2014]

³ Increase from 63.1% in 2005 [Eurostat, 2014]

Source: Own Analysis based on [Eurostat, 2014], [World Economic Forum, 2013], [Catalyst, 2014], [Davidson, Burke, 2011]

Women's share of top management roles remains in single digits, even in Sweden - advanced equal opportunity country - it is below 20%. Norway is an exception, having 37% of board seats in listed companies filled by women [WEF, 2013] driven by 40% quota stipulated by Companies Act amendment in 2003 [Teigen, 2008]. Korn/Ferry Institute [Orr, 2013] identified factors, mostly perceptual, inhibiting women progress to the executive/board level:

1. „Women lag men in the accumulation of high-visibility experiences that prepare them for executive positions.
2. Women are held to higher standards and they are meeting or exceeding them in many areas.
3. Women are rated lower in financial and strategic skills, both of which are mission critical at the executive level.”

In this article we concentrate on barriers and enablers of women's managerial progress irrespective of the rank, but the factors above, play important role in today's women careers.

In the 70's the barriers and enables of woman career were looked at from corporate perspective by Wood [1976] pointing that women do face same issues of being a manager as men, but at the same time they face unique constrain of holding a position long considered „man's job” and thus experience insecurity in the managerial job, especially low self-perception. Also they are being perceived as having „demanding nature at times, less flexible” and displaying „unwillingness to reach out and help other females” thus themselves creating barrier for other women.

Kanter [1977] pointed to special status of women in the management – women becoming „tokens: symbols how-women-can-do, stand-ins for all women”. In the absence of external pressure such tokenism was consider a „ self-perpetuating mechanism preventing women from organizational success”.

In the 80's Schwartz [1986] argued that they are two factors influencing women careers – maternity and different traditions and expectations from sexes, that in turn lead to higher cost of women as manager, views shared in business even today [Morgan, 2012]. Those thesis were developed by Schwartz [1992] and Catalyst Research she founded. Catalyst is now considered an influential player in promoting women in business. This „gender-centered approach” [Akpinar-Sposito, 2013] with examples like Pringle & Gold [1990] pointed to different strategies adopted by women at work with „women becoming more like men” by „understanding of mentoring, power negotiations, managing conflict and change”, at the same time looking at affirmative action. However, affirmative actions were not necessarily providing for change of women perception or even made situation worse [Heilman, 1997]. Later research started to question the „gender-centered approach” [Hall-Taylor, 1997], [Bell, Nkomo, 1992] for ignoring increased workplace gender diversity and for promoting treatment that leads to marginalization of women in

the management. However, radical feminism still brings valuable insight into the management sciences [Sulkowski, 2007].

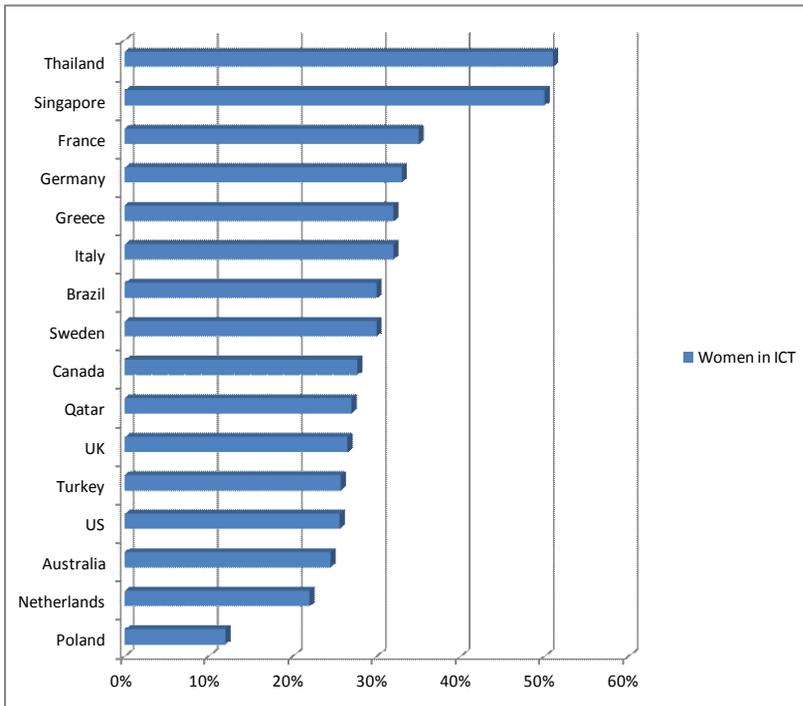
The increase of women managers is driven by perceived company performance impact, shown by studies conducted by McKinsey [Desvaux, Devillard-Hoellinger, Baumgarten, 2007], Credit Suisse Research Institute [2012] and by formal policies for woman inclusion like Norway, Spain and France setting quota: „to reserve at least 40 percent of their boardroom positions for women within six years” [Reuters, 2011]. Those changes generated new focus at more organizational and competence aspects of women’s management careers. In their compilation Billimoria and Piderit [2007] grouped the factor influencing women success in temporary business hierarchy into 3 broad categories:

1. Social factors that affect perception of women ability to succeed in the business like myths and stereotypes in media or the issue of social identity
2. Work-life choices faced by women – especially issue of balancing career with family life, but also work focus and criteria for success
3. Organization factors affecting women in business –leadership style or any formal barriers.

Similar factor were noted in management consulting research: McKinsey [Barsh, Yee, 2012], [Devillard, et al, 2012], [Sussmuth-Dyckerhoff et al, 2012], PDI Ninth House [2012] or Korn-Ferry [Orr, 2013] expanded on factors like: commitment to company policy for women equality, personal leadership qualities for woman or seeking high-exposure position and personal drivers at work. The 2007 McKinsey report [Desvaux et al, 2007] pointed to education, as engineering and management are two areas, where proper early advice and education access can help to battle low number of female job applicants, and similarly „to change binary perception of “men’s jobs” and “women’s jobs” at the very early stage of education”.

Women in the IT industry worldwide

The IT industry has been regarded for long time as men domain, even the own industry publication states that IT is „a juvenile “boys club”, where everything from hardware to source control is pelted with unfortunate, vaguely sexual names. If nothing else, sheer numbers indicate the obvious fact that IT is still a male-dominated field” [Gray, 2013]. Such perception is confirmed by hard statistical numbers:

¹Figure 1 Women in ICT in selected countries.

Source: Own analysis, based on [Eurostat, 2014]; [Catalyst, 2014] (US, Canada); [Antal, 2013] (Poland); [Aradi, Schwalje, 2013] (Qatar); [Cash, 2014] (Australia); [Castle, 2014], [Chan, 2006], [Galpin, 2002], (Thailand, Singapore, Brazil)

Women's participation numbers presented on the figure have high degree of uncertainty, particularly true in Poland, where some research [Antal, 2012], [Hozer, Koćmiel, 2008] suggest that 10-15% is the more accurate figure (or even 9% being percentage of developers heralded by news [PulsHR, 2014]) rather than 38% claimed by Eurostat [2014].

IT industry still attracts lower percentage of women then other industries and from career perspective represent „leaky pipeline” [Gras-Velazquez et al, 2009]—i.e. losing women with each step of career progression. More than 56% of women drop out from IT industry mid-career [Stanford, 2012]. IT industry should be fertile ground for women advancement. ITU – International Telecommunication Union, UN specialized agency – claims for „A bright future in ICT opportunities for a new generation of women” [Tandon et al, 2012]. Even though women ratio

¹ This quite impressive number represents share of Qatari women against total of Qatari women and men in the ICT industry, in fact because of large number of Indian immigrant workers (predominantly male) the real share is much lower

is falling quickly with hierarchy, in the US 15.6% share [Catalyst, 2013] of board directors in the IT exceeds 10% ratio for other listed companies. The next chapter looks for factors that influence women’s success in IT.

Framework for Women Success in the IT Management

There are two types of issues that influence women success in the IT management – industry ability to attract and retain women and women’s issues related to management progression, as they apply in the IT.

The tables below summarize main factors influencing women IT selection and advancement. Coming from Holland research into vocational choice [Holland, 1959] developments by Krumboltz [1976] and his associates [Mitchell et al, 1996] and summarized by e.g. Curry & Milsom [2013] the main attention is paid to: a) individual personality and organization fit for that personality, b) support given to the individual from organization, c) job availability, d) perceived employment attractiveness, e) ability to obtain required skills (education), f) suitability of the job offered to personal circumstances.

Author’s intention is to propose a framework that joins both formal academic research, management applied research (management & HR consulting reports) and industry popular publications that were considered to anchor the research with market perceptions and realities.

Table 2 - Factors influencing Vocational IT choice

Factor	Influence	Comment
Economic & External Factors Influencing IT Choice & IT Job for Women		
(c) Job availability - Global skills shortage in IT /Enabler/	IT faces skill shortage in almost every country [European Commission Information Society and Media, 2010], [Tandon et al, 2012] making any qualified candidates interesting. The campaigns like UK Women for Information Technology [Mahony, Van Toen, 1990] were specifically targeting women to alleviate skills shortage problem.	
(d) Perceived employment attractiveness - Economic attractiveness for IT industry /Enabler/	IT industry is deemed to be one of fastest-growing in the world [Tandon et al, 2012] and mostly jobs are readily available there, even in crisis situation! [Tandon et al, 2012]. IT sector is generally better paying than rest of the economy and in particular in developing countries the initial salary can be 10x national average [Morgan, 2012], whereas in Poland it is approx 1.5-2x increasing with experience to 5-10x [Antal, 2012] and in the US staff salaries are approx. 2-3x median wage [Computerworld, 2012]	Economic attractiveness works for both men and women

Factor	Influence	Comment
(f) Suitability of the job to personal situation - Work conditions in the IT /Barrier/	<p>IT industry does not have „heavy, dirty and involving machinery”[Ismail, 2003] ,[UNESCO] conditions of other engineering branches, but on the other hand it has long hours [Tandon et al, 2012] [Morgan, 2012], [Küskü et al, 2007], [Catalyst, 2003], [Liu, Wilson, 2001] and „workaholic culture” [Huyer et al, 2005] that may put women off.</p> <p>Real flexible hours and the ability to telecommute and use of IT tools as upcoming trend can make those work conditions less onerous [Tandon et al, 2012] [Morgan, 2012] [Catalyst, 2003]</p>	The work conditions have also influence on balancing work and family issue
(e) Ability to obtain required qualification - Women educational orientation for IT /Barrier/	<p>Desvaux et al [2007] pointed to crucial lack of IT orientation for girls, where Mahony and van Toen [1990] pointed that girls are much more attracted to computer science if education emphasis is on social, business and communications aspects of computing. Otherwise IT is perceived as „not applicable to live” [UNESCO] and „IT workplaces (are not) potentially enabling of cool and connected working lives” [Gras-Velazquez et al, 2009] so as a consequence IT is seen as not relevant.</p> <p>UNESCO [UNESCO] and Dryburgh [2000] calls even for use of gender-sensitive teaching methods or gender segregation in IT education and ITU for reassessment of education [Tandon et al, 2012] shared with industry view [Parsons, 2013]. Hafkin & Huyer [2007] pointed to the fact that girls education in IT is often rudimentary and not enough for advanced jobs.</p> <p>In 2003 women comprised only 27% Computer Science Graduates in the US, decrease from 37% in mid-80's [Catalyst, 2003]. The proper educational preparation is deemed necessary for many jobs in the industry, though Hewlett and Sherbin [2014] argue that women education share is now closer to par (41%), but the dropout rate is a problem.</p>	Some countries like Korea introduced wide-ranging educational reform for that purpose [Lee, 2010]

Factor	Influence	Comment
(e) Ability to obtain required qualification - Women education in mathematics /Barrier or Enabler/	<p>Mathematics and other hard science skills are deemed necessary in IT [Stanford, 2012], though this assertion is partially being questioned [Mahony, Van Toen, 1990]. Interest in math/science is often cited by women themselves as selection criteria for engineering and IT [Küskü et al, 2007].</p> <p>Initially girls show equal or higher aptitude to mathematics, but in secondary / tertiary education often boys are perceived as better in math [Hyde et al, 1990], especially when results are combined with gender-aptitude pre-conception [Schmader, 2001]. However more research under Hyde showed that those are moderated in countries where women presence in science and politics is more visible [Else-Quest, Hyde, Linn, 2010]. Therefore the attitude, rather than absolute skill level may be more of the problem.</p>	<p>In Turkey it is observed that on secondary education show strong math skills – that may suggest differences in education system encouraging girls to learn math</p>
(b) Support given to the individual from organization - “Cost to employ women” / Barrier/	<p>There is a perception that women are „more expensive to employ” [Schwartz, 1986], also in IT [Morgan, 2012]. Factors cited included maternity leave, more requirements for flexible / shorter working time or risk of absence because of child sickness [Maguire, Kleiner, 1993]. There is still a gender pay gap in the core IT, in Europe around 15-18% [European Commission Information Society and Media, 2010]. The difference in the US is around 10% [Frost & Sullivan, 2013], [Dice, 2013], which arguably compensates for any additional cost, especially given higher women’s education level [Frost & Sullivan, 2013].</p> <p>In the age of global IT capabilities limitation [UNESCO] alternatives like hiring immigrants are no better economically, because of the global IT salaries pressure. State regulation requiring women parity on the job, or regulation rebalancing „risk of leave” like obligatory paternity leave, mandatory flexible hours, or even military service, in those countries where they apply, remove perceived cost barrier efficiently</p>	<p>It is interesting whether IT companies behave differently in countries where anti-discriminatory laws and special paternity laws (like mandatory paternal leave) exists</p>
Societal & Cultural Factors Influencing IT Choice & Job Retention for Women		

Factor	Influence	Comment
(b) Support given to the individual from organization – Men’s perception of women’s competence in IT /Barrier/	There is lot of stereotyping of women having lower engineering skills that men – as perceived by men themselves [Küskü et al, 2007] and same applies in IT [Morgan, 2012], [Gras-Velazquez et al, 2009], [Catalyst, 2003], [Liu, Wilson, 2001. That makes hiring and promotion selection in the industry to favor men over women. Impact of „hiding” sex information on women acceptance was shown in music industry with big advancement of women in orchestras after introduction of blind audition [Credit Suisse, 2012], same is noted for Turkish anonymized exam systems that promotes women in engineering [Küskü et al, 2007]	
(d) Perceived employment attractiveness - Lack of role models /Barrier/	Lack of role models for women in IT [UNESCO] [Parsons, 2013] influences men selection criteria as above. Interestingly successful IT women can see themselves as experts not as women-experts [Stanford, 2012], so it does not help women’s expertise perception.	Groups such as She++ [Stanford] or Black Girls Code [Parsons, 2013] or Polish Geek Girls Carrots do play a role of helping women to build awareness of female capabilities in the IT industry – as those have to be first advertised by women to be noted.
(b) Support given to the individual from organization - Number of women in IT – “token” situation / Barrier/	“Token” [Kanter, 1976] situation of women in engineering & IT positions is common [Evetts, 1997], [Küskü, 2007] [Standford, 2012] That has a danger of cornering women into specific image and roles [Stanford, 2012] as self-perpetuating cycle [Bell, Nkomo, 1992].	With increase of women in IT influence of that factor wears off. As long as women are seen as exception, their presence is not accepted as rule (e.g. Polish saying represents common view that „exception confirms the rule”).
Women internal decision factors		
(a) Individual personality - Women interest in IT /Barrier or Enabler/	In line with Holland theory [Holland, 1959] there are personal capabilities that makes certain women more interested in engineering careers. In West & Ross study [2002] women who choose IT used verbs such as ‘fun’, ‘exciting’ or ‘variability of applications’ and display real interest in IT. Despite innate (in this case personal) factors, building new perception of IT for women is cited as requisite to attract more women to the IT [Gras-Velazquez et al, 2009].	

Factor	Influence	Comment
(f) Suitability of the job to personal situation - IT perception as “boys club” / Barrier/	<p>From early days of computer games and computer clubs IT has a distinctive male image [Mahony, Van Toen, 1990] with specific subculture.</p> <p>According to Dryburgh [2000] women already in Computer Science adjust to male culture, but the women outside are deterred from entering the field.</p> <p>Women still feel „marginalized by lab-coat, hard-hat, and geek workplace cultures that are often exclusionary and promulgate bias” [Hewlett, Sherbin, 2014] and IT has „juvenile boys club image” [Grey, 2013] and developer frequently equals to male [European Commission Information Society and Media, 2010].</p>	See ‘Women educational orientation for IT’ above
(a) Individual personality - Women self-perception of IT skills / Barrier/	<p>Though lot of women do believe that men have better computer skills [Liu, Wilson, 2001] [European Commission Information Society and Media, 2010] or are afraid of showing their incompetence [West, Ross, 2002] the reality is that women who occupy similar IT positions are often better educated [Frost & Sullivan, 2013] and their skill level is at least equal to men’s [Gras-Velazquez et al, 2009], [European Commission Information Society and Media, 2010].</p>	This points to more general issue of women’s perception of being adequate for job [Credit Suisse, 2012]
(d) Perceived employment attractiveness - Family acceptance / influence / Enabler/	<p>For girls having a female family member who works/succeeds in engineering/IT is a strong factor to select the profession [Smith, Dengiz,2009], [Stanford, 2012], similarly to Role Models ability to change industry perception of women in the IT. Family influence is much stronger than teacher’s influence, even if that is also important [Dryburgh, 2000]</p> <p>Also Morgan [2012] and Smith & Dengiz [2009], [Gras-Velazquez et al, 2009], [Galpin, 2002] pointed to the family acceptance of IT/engineering career choice being an important element.</p>	The family factor is particularly strong in cultures with traditional women role image

¹ Example can be article from Academic Job Fairs in Poland’s Metro from 7th November 2014 citing full-time opportunities offered to graduates in Signity (IT company) vs part-time in other companies [Metro, 2014]

Further the managerial progress is analyzed using factors above, social& organizational factors identified by Billimoria and Piderit [2007] and recent consulting research like Devillard et all [2012], Orr [2013]: g) social and self-perception of the women's ability to succeed, h) work-life choices, i) organizational factors, j) leadership skills and styles. This is presented in the table below:

Table 3 - Factors influencing managerial progress

Factor	Influence	Comment
Economic factors		
(b) Support given to the individual from organization - Women more expensive to become managers /Barrier/	This is already mentioned in Table 2 above, with particular fear of promoting women before they get babies, which in turn could mean wasted investment [Kottis, 1996] like finding replacement, potentially temporary. There is a significant body of argument [Credit Suisse Research Institute, 2012] that actually having best talent in the management, independent of gender [Sussmuth-Dyckhoff et al, 2012] is necessity in the age of global talent scarcity [Desvaux et al, 2007], [Barsh, Yee, 2012] and provides big economic benefits [Devillard et al, 2013].	
Perception factors		
(g) Social perception of women's ability to succeed /Barrier/	The general picture of women in society is „submissive, dependent (...) less competent than men and unsuited for authority or leadership” [Geis, 1993 cited in Sanal, 2008] The successful public figures, which change such model are cited in research e.g. Davidson & Burke [2011] to prove changes in gender perception.	
(g) Social perception of women's ability to succeed - Roles stereotyping /Barrier/	„The best man for this job is a man” [Maguire, Kleiner, 1993] assertion was for long a major barrier for women advancement. Stereotypes about women may result in perception of e.g. women unfit for management/ administration jobs [Sanal, 2008]. Change in perception of a manager's role from the „gamesman” - a self-focused, hypercompetitive and demanding blind obedience, to „paying attention to workforce” [Stanek, 1980] helped to turn attention to skills where women perform better [Orr, 2013] like: customer relationship fostering, promoting teamwork, developing talents and engagement. On the other hand boxing women as provider of „soft skills” marginalizes them in the management ranks [Hall-Taylor, 1997]. Also it may be observed that women candidates with appropriate education „became not visible” to employers [Kotti, 1996] who complain about lack of job candidates. There is a significant move to recognize that old managerial role stereotype is no longer valid, but there is still a tendency to prefer being managed by man rather than woman, by both sexes, independent of actual assessment of managerial capabilities [Wojciszke, 2002].	

Factor	Influence	Comment
(g) Social perception of women's ability to succeed - Role modeling / Barrier/	Similarly to the IT role models, in the management role models act in two ways – to prove that women can do the job and give women evidence that such progress is possible [Maguire, Kleiner, 1993] Women „lack role models, networks and mentors” [Catalyst, 2003], but also women tend not to advocate their own success [Devillard et al, 2012], [Orr, 2013] thus even if successful are not visible as role models. Therefore promotion of such role models by Catalyst and likes is important.	
Work-life choices for women		
(h) Work-life choices - Balancing work and family / Barrier/	Practically all texts on women career touch upon issue of balancing work with having family. Even some research suggest that among successful women there is disproportionately big share of childless women [Desvaux et al, 2007]. Mostly because „anytime, anywhere” availability that requires sacrifices in family life [Devillard et al, 2013]. Interesting remark to the issue is shown by Morgan [2012] where ICT organizations talk „a lot about supporting women's family responsibilities (...) but little about men's role as fathers” as childcare is assumed to be primary women responsibility.	
(h) Work-life choices - Different career priorities / Barrier/	There is a notion that women lives do not fit male career development theories [Bell, Nkomo, 1992], [O'Connor, 2001] and despite slow formal progress, women can get nonetheless job satisfaction and meaningful development. Barsh & Yee [2012] confirmed that women may opt out from promotion seeking other gratification like giving people purpose and interacting with them.	
Women readiness for management progression		

Source – Own Analysis

Conclusions

Women career in the IT can be defined in two critical dimensions:

1. vocational choice - women willingness and ability to enter IT career
2. and factors influencing women managerial progression, which also apply to the IT industry.

Based on the analysis of literature materials, author proposes a framework that analyses factors influencing women career in the IT sector alongside those two dimensions as follows:

1. Vocational IT choice: a) individual personality and organization fit for that personality, b) support given to the individual from organization, c) job availability, d) perceived employment attractiveness, e) ability to obtain required skills (education), f) suitability of the job offered to personal circumstances

2. Managerial career - the factors defined above and g) social and self-perception of the women's ability to succeed, h) work-life choices, i) organizational factors, j) leadership skills and styles.

The above defined factors form the framework of reference that can help in finding to what extent they are reflected in women's experience in real world. Also that could help to validate recommendations to increase women's IT participation proposed by numerous policy reports like e.g. ITU [Tandon et al, 2012].

The framework requires further consolidation to remove duplicated areas, which at the moment represent different viewpoint (e.g. industry vs. individual or industry vs. broader society) on the same issue. Such clarification should be really performed after the feedback from women in the IT industry, which can help clarify whether the framework's building blocks represent the same or different issue.

Proposed next research steps

The trends identified above from research and popular literature should be confronted with real women experience in the IT. Such research already commenced by the author and is now planned to be extended to larger women representation in Turkey, Sweden and Poland – as they represent three different economic and management patterns: Sweden – and equal opportunity country with women's IT participation close to 30% and high management participation, Turkey – country where western stereotypes will not expect significant female IT presence, but is on par with that of the US, and Poland – where women's share of IT jobs was historically very low, but seems to be rapidly changing. Author proposes qualitative research to reflect on perceptions and feelings of people in real management and professional roles in ICT organizations.

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Perception of human capital competences for the provision of tourist services: an overview of visitors to the destination Mazatlan, Sinaloa, Mexico

Abstract: The consolidated tourist destinations are facing a stagnation situation, preamble to decline, stay, or rejuvenate (Butler, 1980). This perspective raises the need to develop strategies at national, local and organizational levels to maintain or increase the influx, spending and tourist permanence that generates greater benefits to the destination, which implies, necessarily, having human capital possessing ability, as well as the technical and behavioral competencies sufficient to cater to these visitors.

The purpose of the study is to analyze the perception of tourists regarding the competences of the human capital in lodging, food and transportation organizations in the city of Mazatlan Sinaloa. The research was conducted using a mixed methodology, being a descriptive, cross-sectional study. A questionnaire was used to develop the field work.

The human capital in the tourism sector that operates in the services of accommodation, meals and transportation in the destination of Mazatlan, has enough power from the perception of the visitors. The contribution of this research is considered relevant due to regularly surveyed tourists to learn about the satisfaction of service or from the perception of our human resources, which inferred the search for references about the state of the issue being addressed.

Key words: Perception visitors, human capital, competence, Mazatlan tourist destination

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Introduction

The consolidated tourist destinations face a stagnation situation, the preamble to decline, remain in, or rejuvenate (Butler, 1980). In this perspective, there is a need to develop strategies at national, local and organizational levels to maintain or increase the flow, tourist spending and generate higher profits at the destination, which implies, to have human capital possessing the capacity and sufficient technical and behavioral competencies to meet these visitors.

Acosta, and Mollón Fernández (2002) indicate that in the tourism sector, in particular, hotels, a weakness is manifested in the proper training of employees who sometimes assume the activities under the precepts of improvisation, so that it does not meet the expectations of increasingly demanding tourists.

By contextualizing tourism in Mexico based on the economic theories of labor markets, Mendez Rodríguez Osorio and Salgado (2013) allude to changes on the labor market, noting that while in the past, employment in tourism was cataloged as flexible and precarious, currently the globalizing neoliberal stage take it to the extreme in a model that requires greater technical staff, with medium and high training skills.

Offering services with high quality standards represents an ongoing challenge for those within the tourism industry. Achieving the above is a complex task that has many edges. Hence the importance of analyzing the skills that shows employees in the lodging, food and transportation organizations in the destination of Mazatlan, Sinaloa, Mexico.

This city is the second largest in the state of Sinaloa, Mexico. Its main economic activity is tourism, with 69,450 jobs in the hospitality, commercial, restaurateur, and transportation sector as well as cultural and recreational services (City of Mazatlan, 2011). The statistical compendium of tourism in Mexico 2013, the Ministry of Tourism, says that tourist arrivals was 1,743,575, corresponding to 81.1% nationally, mainly from Distrito Federal, Coahuila and Chihuahua and 18.9% internationally, especially from the United States and Canada. The average stay is 2.73 tourists per night.

Human Capital and competence in tourism

Becker (1983) and Bardarova et al, mentioned that human capital is a set of production skills, talent and knowledge of people, acquired by education, scientific research, job training and experience. Davenport (1999) refers to the human capital as the capacity, behavior, effort and time employees spend at work. The ability, knowledge and talent; behavioral values such as ethics, beliefs and reactions to the world are expressed in the capacity or expertise of the activity. The effort is a conscious application of mental and physical resources for a particular purpose; while time is a chronological human capital investment.

In the evolution of the concept of human capital, Morales (2005) following Schultz (1959) mentions that human resources have quantitative and qualitative dimensions: the first one has the number of people, the percentage of the active population, and the number of hours worked. In the latter is considered for operational skills, knowledge and similar attributes that affect an individual's ability to perform productive work.

Generically, competence is defined as a set of abilities, skills, knowledge and attitudes that are specified assertively in problem solving or in a relevant response to a new or specific situation according to the National System of Competence in Mexico (Consejo de Normalización y Certificación de Competencia Laboral, CONOCER, 2014).

The International Labour Organization, ILO (2000), in relation to education and training in tourism indicates that the complexity of the workplace requires training, with an evolution of operational to personal skills towards professional and social skills. The new competences should allow workers to reach the necessary autonomy at work: the ability to learn and develop activities to assimilate all the elements of a complex process, and real communication skills, including negotiation in case of conflict.

Therefore, competences of the human capital in tourism are understood as the knowledge, skills and values that are found in operative employees, managers and executives to provide an efficient service that meets the expectations of the visitors in a destination.

At CONOCER, in relation to tourism, there are standards of the following skills: 1. Attention to diners, 2. Coordination of food and beverage services, 3. Coordination of housekeeping services and areas of stay for temporary housing, 4. Hygienic food handling, 5. Cleaning industrial kitchens, 6. Operation of pools, 7. Food preparation, 8. Preparation of rooms for temporary housing, 9. Preparation and beverage service, 10. Providing reception and guest service for temporary accommodation, 11. Provision of customer service, and 12. Monitoring the conditions of registration and guest's stay.

The competence of human capital in this research is studied from the perception of tourists, who temporarily move from one place to another to satisfy their need for entertainment, which for a time; they stay outside their usual place of residence (Ascanio, 2012).

Therefore, the purpose of the study is to analyze the perception of tourists about the competences of human capital in lodging, food and transportation organizations in the city of Mazatlan, Sinaloa. The hypothesis is that human capital that provides lodging, food and transportation in the touristic destination of Mazatlan, has sufficient competences from the perception of the tourist.

Methodology

The research methodology applied is a mixed approach, with a descriptive, cross-sectional study. To develop fieldwork a questionnaire, subjected to expert validation, was applied. The sample used was of 117 respondents.

The questionnaire contains two sections. The first refers to the socio-demographic data, the visitor was asked: place of origin, sex, age, frequency of visiting Mazatlan, level of education and transportation used.

The second section contains the set of items that identifies the visitors' perception concerning the skills of employees that offer services related to accommodation, food and transportation. The questionnaire statements emphasize the knowledge, attitudes and values shown in the technical standards and / or standardization of labor competence of the CONOCER, in questions 1 to 14 and 17-18. Questions 15 and 16 refer to competences of provision of customer service, but employees (drivers, local transportation and foreign tourism support) do not appear defined in the above mentioned standards.

Criteria apply to people aged 16 and older which had stayed in accommodation establishments, who were surveyed in site, in areas such as the boardwalk, beaches and squares, considered the major areas of tourists in Mazatlan.

Empirical results

The information resulting from this study is presented in two sections: the first results of the socio-demographic data of visitors and in the second, the perception of the competence of employees in each analyzed dimension.

Socio-demographic data of the informants:

Table 1 Sex, age, occupation and transporting visitors

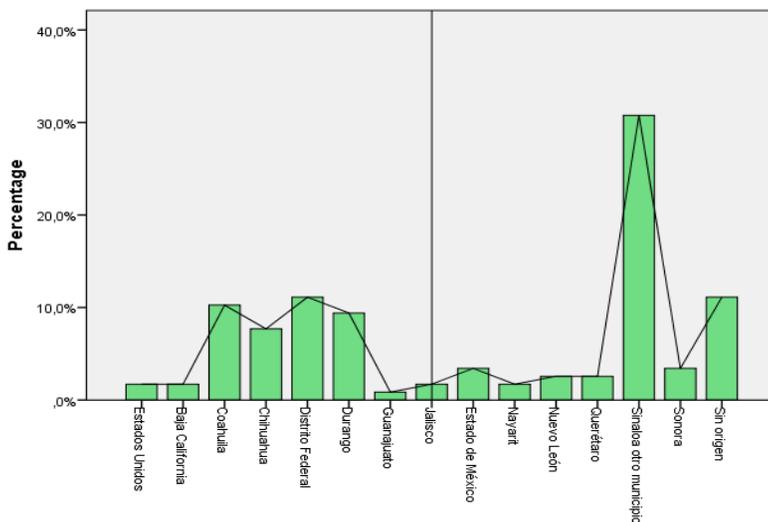
Sex	Number	Percentage	Occupation	Number	Percentage
Female	69	59.0	Student	32	27.4
Male	48	41.0	Businessman	17	14.5
			Housewife	12	10.3
Age	Number	Percentage	Employee	37	31.6
16-29	58	49.6	Other	19	16.2
30-44	43	36.8			
45-64	12	10.3	Transport	Number	Percentage
65 or more	4	3.4	Air	14	12.0
			Bus	60	51.3

		Private car	43	36.8
Total		117	100.0	

Source: Own elaboration, 2014

The highest percentages in the number of respondents, Table 1 correspond to females with 59.0%, the segment of ages 16 to 29 years with 49.6%; in employment to employees with 31.6%. The shuttle bus arrival corresponds to 51.3%. While the lowest percentage corresponding to age 65 years, 3.4% in love occupancy houses, 10.3% and air transport with 12.0%.

Figure 1 Origin of visitors



The origin of the visitors according to Figure 1 shows that, from 15 destinations inside Mexico and one country other than Mexico, the United States. Visitors are about 30% from Sinaloa (other municipalities), 11% from Distrito Federal, 10% from Coahuila and 9% from Durango; in smaller percentages you have Aguascalientes, Guanajuato and the United States.

Table 2 Frequency of visits to Mazatlan tourist destination

Concept frequency	Frequency	
	Absolutes	Percentage
First time	28	23.9
Every month	10	8.5
Every three months	12	10.3
Every six months	20	17.1
Every year or more	47	40.2
Total	117	100.0

Source: Own elaboration, 2014

40.2% of informants indicated that they visit Mazatlan every year and 23.9% for the first time, to a lesser extent you have every month visitors to an 8.5% as shown in Table 2.

Visitor perception regarding competence in basic services (accommodation, food and transportation)

The average perceived competence of human capital is valued as good with a 52.7% in the three basic services that are studied, while there is a tiny negative or bad rating of 0.2%. It is observed that only transportation is rated very good with 50.2% and the rest appears below 40.0%, Table 3.

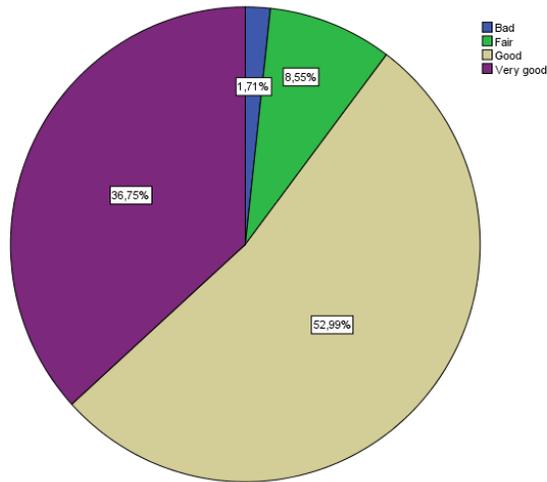
Table 3 Perceived competence of human capital in accommodation, food and transportation

Perception of competence	Accommodation	Food	Transportation	Responsible human capital	Average
Very bad	0.2	0.4	0.3		0.2
Bad	2.1	1.4	0.6		1.0
Fair	5.8	8.3	2.3	2.5	4.7
Good	52.2	53.0	46.6	59.0	52.7
Very good	39.7	36.9	50.2	38.5	41.4
	100.0				
	.0	100.0	100.0	100.00	100.00

Source: Own elaboration, 2014

Notes: In the different transportations, the total was considered without missing values It includes separate Responsible Human capital, as it was questions covering all three services.

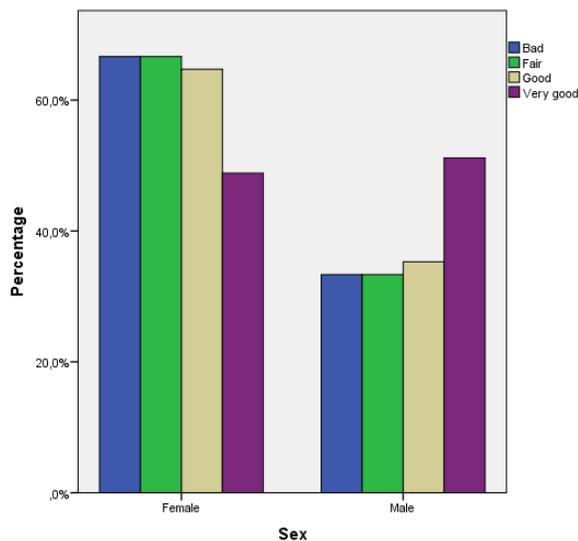
Figure 2 Cleanliness of the room



Source: Own elaboration, 2014

In the standardization of competence, coordination of housekeeping services and areas of stay for temporary housing and preparing rooms for temporary housing, the human resources of the clean room presentation (Maids, rooms division manager, etc.) are incorporated. In figure 2, 52.9% of the visitors consider good the competence of maids while 8.5% considered it between fair and bad.

Figure 3 Communication from the receptionist

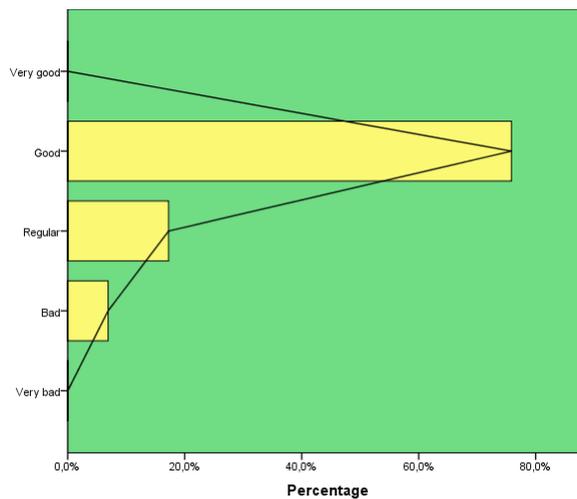


Source: Own elaboration, 2014

The standard of competence providing reception and guest services for temporary accommodation, provision of customer care and supervision of the conditions of registration and residence of the host, is referred to human resources (receptionist, reception and accommodation managers). The perception of tourists regarding to information and communication of the receptionist had the highest percentage of good with 57.0%, while the percentage of bad and fair approach 7%. This variable is divided by sex, being woman answering good in a 67.0%, and 65.0% fair. 51.2% men said very good and 35.3% good, figure 3.

Moreover, the standard of competence providing of customer care and supervision of the conditions of registration and guest stay where they are managers accommodation, hotel administrator, hotel managers and front desk receptionist and telephone operators, they are related to the concept of problem in the hotel. 75.21% of the visitors said to have no problem at the hotel and 24.79% said yes. While the answers to solve problems, 72.0% mentioned having good experiences and 10.0% said bad experiences, figure 4.

Figure 4 Solving problems in the hotel



Source: Own elaboration, 2014

Regarding the competence standard of room preparation for temporary housing, services for customers and, service reception and guest services for temporary accommodation, incorporate a friendly attitude. The visitors replied that hotel staff demonstrate very good friendliness by 55.56% and 0.85% indicated a very bad kindness.

The perception of the friendliness of the hotel employee, according to the occupation of the visitor, Table 4, realizes that employee informants reported the highest

percentage with 24.6% of a very good kindness and good with 41.7%; while 66.7% students perceived it as fair kindness, as well as perceiving a very bad kindness in tiny proportions.

Table 4 Perceptions friendly hotel employee according to the occupation of the visitor

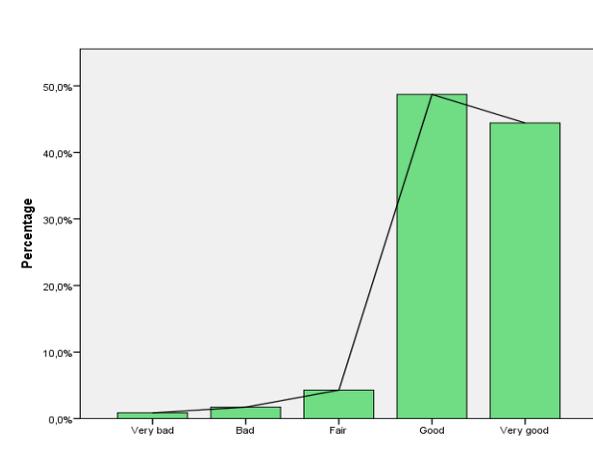
Occupation visitor		Perception of kindness				Total
		Very bad	Fair	Good	Very good	
Student	No.	1	2	15	14	32
	%	100.0	66.7	31.3	21.5	27.4
Businessman	No.	0	0	5	12	17
	%	0.0	0.0	10.4	18.5	14.5
Housewife	No.	0	0	4	8	12
	%	0.0	0,0	8,3	12.3	10.3
Employee	No.	0	1	20	16	37
	%	0.0	33.3	41.7	24.6	31.6
Other	No.	0	0	4	15	19
	%	0.0	0.0	8.3	23.1	16.2
	No.	1	3	48	65	117
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Own elaboration, 2014

In relation to the standard of care competencies diners, food preparation, food hygiene management, coordination of food and beverage services, including cooks, food service assistants and beverages, bakers, majority of kitchen helper cook, bartender, restaurant captain, engineers in food processing, specialized technical food and beverages, etc., the question relates to food presentation according to the expectations of the visitors. 48.0% said good, Figure 5, while 43% said very good and 9% fair to very bad.

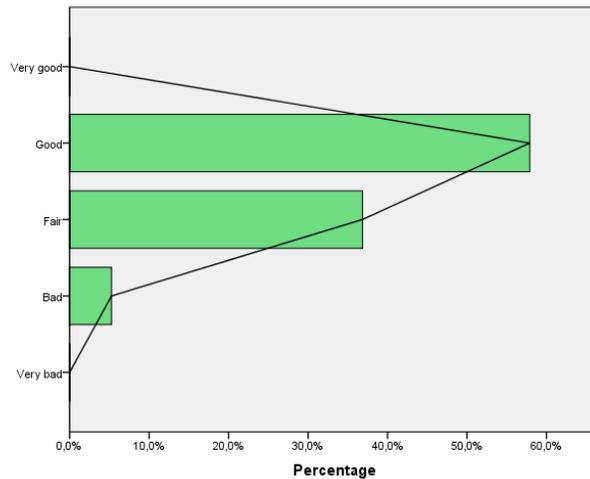
The standard of competence coordination of food and beverage service, attention to diners, is where waiters and technicians specialized in food and beverages are included to the questions of problems in the restaurant. 85.47% said not having problems, while 14.53 % did have. The direct relationship of this question to the solution of problems in the restaurant, Figure 6, is said 58% responded good, 36% had a fair solution, 5% in a bad solution.

Figure 5 Presentation of food in accordance with expectations



Source: Own elaboration, 2014

Figure 6 Solving problems restaurant

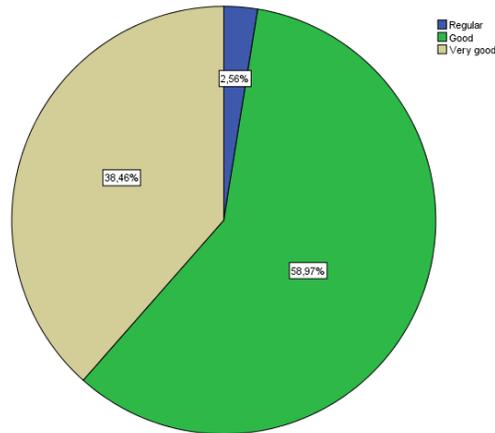


Source: Own elaboration, 2014

Attitude-value of responsibility appears not to provide reception and guest services for temporary accommodation, preparation and serving of beverages and operation pools in 75% of the standards of competence. The ask visitor was conducted on a general assessment of the three services: accommodation, food and transporta-

tion and answers, figure 7, realize that 59.0% perceived good, 38.5% very good and 2.5% fair.

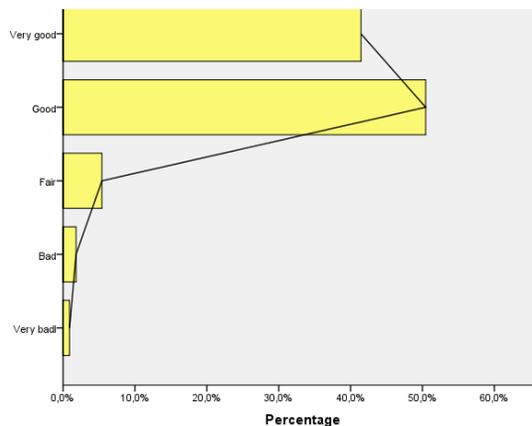
Figure 7 Responsibility for employees



Source: Own elaboration, 2014

In the standard of competence for the development of tourism activities, was found to transport personnel. It was decided to ask the question for perception in the attention of local transportation personnel as part of the basic service offered to visitors. Responses of visitors, figure 8, realize that 55.0% reported that accountability is good and 45.0% very good, 4% said poor to very bad.

Figure 8 Attention local transport staff



Source: Own elaboration, 2014

With regard to the question of what aspects would recommend for training employees responses were in absolute numbers were: customer service is 50; All is well, 41 and in communication, 5. fewer were: problem solving, planning influx, personality, knowledge of tourism, health, first aid.

In regard to the questions of attitudes, I would advise employees to improve their performance based in the replies received, in absolute numbers: 21 in kindness; 11 in dynamism and 7 adequate expressions. With a lower number availability, initiative, spirit of service, cleanliness, empathy.

Conclusion

Human capital in the tourism sector operates in the accommodation, food and transportation services in the destination of Mazatlan, has sufficient competence in the perception of visitors, considering the average value of 52.7% as good which added to very good 41.4%, totaling 94.1% which is interpreted as a positive perception.

Regarding the variable frequency of visit to Mazatlan, opportunities are inferred as 23.9% of respondents mentioned that for the first time and 40.2% each year. This means that with an improvement in education and training strategies of human capital competence, it would help in maintaining, and eventually increase the number visitors.

The areas of opportunity to improve human capital competence in food and accommodation service focus on problem solving, which proves that there is a demand for a consumer with evolving behaviors and values (ILO, 2000).

The strength is the attitude responsibility of employees in the three areas addressed in the questionnaire averaged 59.0 good and 38.0 very good from the perception of the visitor, so its use is recommended in the sector.

Finally, the contribution of this research is considered relevant because tourists are surveyed regularly to learn about service satisfaction or from the perception of human resource itself, which was inferred from the reference search on the state the issue addressed.

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Leadership in the fishing cooperative in Mexico

Abstract: The need to compete and grow encourages changes in organizations. In the fishing camps are created cooperatives, which know the reality of the environment and work with the aim of contributing to the development and progress of the fishermen and their communities. It is fundamental the role of its leaders, who have a responsibility to promote change in attitude and teamwork, to achieve personal and collective goals.

This paper presents preliminary results of a larger study which main objective was to identify the type of leadership that dominates in the management of the Sinaloa fishing cooperatives. The study was conducted under the qualitative paradigm; data collection was carried out with semi-structured interviews with managers and former directives of fishing cooperatives located in central Sinaloa, complemented by the application of a questionnaire covering their socioeconomic profile.

The main findings show that managers are fishermen, cooperative members, elected by the General Assembly as the highest organ of administration, with an average age from 35 to 45 years old, with basic school grades. They know about the productive activity of artisanal fisheries and occupy the job of president of the board in periods of 2-3 years without administrative preparation to run them. Regarding the predominant style of leadership, managers of fishing cooperatives say their efforts are focused on the development of organizational tasks such as setting goals and targets for each fishing season. In relation with the development of human relationships among members of the cooperative, indicate that their main concern is the quality of mutual relations and the level of involvement of partners, and with that in mind they implement strategies for the integration and participation in the opinions and decision making for the members. With the above it is concluded that managers of fishing cooperatives are young

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fishermen who run the organization with little training for the development of their job and they practice predominantly a style of democratic leadership, because they promote the participation of partners in both contribution of opinions as in decision making, strengthening the trust deposited in him at the time of his election as leader.

Key words: leadership, cooperative fisheries, management

Introduction

Today the world is undergoing a series of changes, influenced by various factors, both economic and social, that establish a strong transformation of organizations to enable them to adapt, survive and evolve; cooperative organizations are not exempt from this.

Cooperatives are required to have an administration capable of operating changes, improve resources, anticipate problems and make decisions that lead them to adapt quickly. The management of this organization is faced with the development of a dual role: one is to maintain the cooperative essence fulfilling the cooperative principles and internal rules and another role that requires having the preparation for the use of appropriate administrative tools.

The need for cooperation has motivated grouped humans from the earliest stages of civilization in order to improve their quality of life, starting with the exchange of goods obtained from hunting, fishing and gathering food.

Currently, the leadership role is of particular importance for achieving organizational competitiveness. Borboa, Rodriguez, Cereceres and Del Castillo (2006) note that in order to implement the required changes, it is important for the leaders to develop skills, personal characteristics and behaviors that allow them to establish the commitment of members to the competitiveness of the organization.

Whoever the leader is, he is the one who should consider leadership as a set of actions to help determine the goals of the group or to develop strategies to achieve them, without neglecting the quality improvement and group development.

Based on the above, arise questions like: What is the profile of the fishing cooperative management? What tasks performs the management of the fishing cooperative to fulfill its functions? What is the leadership style that dominates the management of the fishing cooperative?

The research aimed to analyze the characteristics of the management of the fishing cooperative and the predominant style of leadership. The study was conducted with the quantitative approach; data collection was conducted through surveys of 120 fishermen from fishing cooperatives in the center of the state of Sinaloa and who have served as president of the board, in various periods.

Theoretical references

The cooperative

Cooperatives are organizations that do not belong to the traditional private sector or the public sector; they are given different names such as: the third sector, social economy, people's economy and comprise among other cooperatives, savings banks, mutual funds and non-profit associations, with growing importance, forming a so-called third sector, including public economics and private industry (Bastidas-Richer, 2001: p.7). On the other hand, are identified with two dimensions: 1) associative, which is reflected both in literature and in law when it is characterized as an open institution, nonprofit organization with a strong social responsibility and prioritizing its objectives addressing the needs of its partners and 2) business, as it explicitly includes the business nature of the organization (ACI, 2014).

Esteller (2002, p.8) notes that the cooperative has an immediate object that consists of activities undertaken to solve problems or meet the needs of their members or indirectly from the wider community where they develop their roles.

The most popular definition of cooperative, has been proposed by the Alianza de Cooperativas Internacional (International Cooperative Alliance; for its acronym in Spanish, ACI) which states: "A cooperative is an autonomous association of common persons united voluntarily to meet their common economic, social and cultural aspirations through a jointly and democratically controlled property" (ACI, 2014). In Mexico, according to the Ley General de Sociedades Cooperativas (General Law of Cooperative Societies; for its acronym in Spanish, LGSC), cooperative is a form of social organization composed of individuals based on common interests and on the principles of solidarity, self-help and mutual aid, in order to meet individual needs and collective, through the pursuit of economic activities of production, distribution and consumption of goods and services (LGSC, 2009, Article 2).

Unlike private companies, cooperative organizations are entities operating as non-profit, however require good management and administration to survive and fulfill its social mission (Braga, 2002, p.1).

As a result of the characteristics of the cooperative, management is delegated to a Board of Directors which in turn is subordinate to the maximum cooperative authority such as the General Assembly and appointing one member as a representative of the partners, performing the role of chairman of the board, who becomes the person responsible for leading the process for meeting the guidelines issued by the General Assembly.

In this respect adds Bertossi (2002, p.3) that the cooperative movement, represented by some successful cases, has strengthened its corporate character through the application of management techniques imported from the conventional company, changing behavior patterns to set a style steering close to the idiosyncratic features of the cooperative principles.

Definition of leadership

Organizations are definitely the scenario of greater impact on the dynamics of transformation of modern civilization as it permeates all areas of human activity such as family, education, sports, science, art, politics, law, economics and society in general.

Kast and Rosenzweig (1988) cited by Chiavenato (1999) notes that organizations are not distant, impersonal phenomena; are inexorably intertwined with our daily lives. In this sense, the organization largely results to action groups (Donnelly, Gibson and Ivancevich, 1998).

One of the processes that generate greater impact in organizations today is the business management, which is based on the view that if the jobs and organizations are planned, organized and controlled properly, increases the overall development members of the organization as well as the productivity of the same. This implies that people with management skills are needed to learn how to use the skills of the staff, who are able to communicate, make decisions, resolve conflicts, to create a motivating and positive environment that promotes employee in achieving corporate goals that is, effective leadership (Donnelly, Gibson & Ivancevich, 1996; Robbins, 1999).

The concept of leadership there are various interpretations; its meaning has been modified in accordance with changes in human development. By Fiedler (1961) cited by Kreitner and Kinicki (1997) considers leadership as a subjective fact that is the power structure of a group; while Robbins (1999) notes that it is the ability to influence a group so that the goals are achieved. The source of this influence may be formal, such as that provided by the possession of a general rank in an organization. For French and Bell (1996) leadership is a highly interactive and shared process in which members of all teams develop skills in the same process; involves setting a direction, vision and strategies to reach a goal, aligning people and motivating at the same time.

Leadership is also interpersonal influence exercised in a situation addressed through the process of human communication, to achieve one or several specific objectives. Leadership is seen as a phenomenon that occurs in social interaction; must be analyzed in terms of the relationships between people in a given social structure rather than by examining a series of individual characteristics (Chiavenato, 1999).

According to Siliceo, Casares and Gonzalez (1999), the leader at all levels and in all fields of human labor, is actually a builder of organizational culture, this being the set of values, traditions, beliefs, habits, norms, attitudes and behaviors that give identity, personality, meaning and purpose to an organization for achieving economic and social objectives.

Kast (1973) states that leadership is the process by which an individual consistently exerts more influence than others in carrying out the functions of the group.

In addition, the author emphasizes that influence is not limited to a few occasions or actions, but must endure over time. This causes the leader's role to be permanent, meaning that attaches the ability to influence a particular group and for a temporary period.

According to Donnelly, Gibson and Ivancevich (1996) some authors have given the impression that leadership is synonymous with management; however, this is not correct; not only are the leaders in the hierarchy of management, but also in informal working groups.

The difference between leadership and management has been established as follows: leadership is a part of the management, but not all of it. Leadership is the ability to convince others to look forward to the achievement of defined objectives. It is the human factor that binds to a group and motivates towards objectives. Management activities as planning, organizing and making decisions are not effective until the leader stimulates the power of motivation in people and directs them towards the goals. Leadership is the way to move people and this is only part of the tasks of management (Ginebra, 1997).

Theories of Leadership

There is a big difference in taking a theoretical explanation of the leadership landscape within highlights four key approaches: 1) theories based on personal attributes, 2) behavioral theories, 3) the situational models and 4) attributional perspective. Despite the apparent differences in many aspects, these theories are considered to be complementary.

The approach of leadership has been taking relatively different courses that occur sometimes as cyclic waves reprising certain emphasis and diminish the value of others. Some approaches have evolved and added new elements to the premises raised by previous conceptions.

Older explanations on leadership were related to personal and invariant characteristics of individuals possessing that quality; in this approach are the trait theory, charismatic leadership and motivational theory. On the other hand, there are those who see leadership as a set of more specific behaviors exhibited by the leader and determine their style of interacting with subordinates and located to behavioral theories and transactional/transformational leadership. A less known approach evaluates leadership in terms of a social role (rational-bureaucratic theory).

A more recent approach developed the tenets of behavioral theory and subordinated its effect depending on the contextual conditions in which leadership is exercised; in this group are situational or contingencial theories. Finally, it has been recently addressed the issue of leadership as a perceptual phenomenon in which the perspective of attribution theory of leadership is located (Kreitner and Kinicki, 1997; Robbins, 1999; Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman, 1999)

For purposes of the study, situational leadership theory was used to explain a local situation regarding the management of the cooperative and its behavior. This approach includes a set of theories based on the idea that the leader's behavior would be affected by a number of factors in the context in which leadership is exercised and that it would determine its effectiveness (Kreitner and Kinicki, 1997); also, Adair (1990) found that leadership depends on the situation.

Within this group of theories, there are various approaches; one delves into the socio-emotional support that the leader provides to their followers as well as the situational requirements so that it can exert, ie, the support that the leader provides to a given situation (Rodríguez, 1988). A second theory in this sense, is developed by Fiedler (1961), cited by Robbins (1999); according to this, the group will perform adequately when suitable combination style of interaction between the leader and his subordinates occurs. This has two basic trends: task-oriented or relationship-oriented. The proper relationship between the leader's style and his subordinates depend on the characteristics of the task and the extent to which the situation gives control and influence to the leader, resulting in three basic considerations: a) degree of structuring of the task: this it can be high or low; b) amount of power available to the leader according to their position in the organization: this can be strong or weak; c) quality of interpersonal relationships between the leader and other members of the group: this can be good or poor.

Another proposal under this model is to Hersey and Blanchard, who argue that the style of leadership that the leader must exhibit to achieve optimal results, is solely based on the characteristics of followers, more specifically, the level of competition and disposition in collaborating with the leader's proposals. Despite what the leader does, effectiveness depends on the actions of his followers. Robbins (1999) notes that this is a dimension that has been overlooked in most theories of leadership.

Leadership Styles

There are several theories on behavior and leadership styles of managers in modern organizations, which are essential when studying the behavior of these references; one of the most used is the one proposed by Stoner (1996).

Stoner and others (1996, p.345) believe that leaders are characterized in three basic styles: a) The autocratic leader: orders and expects obedience, is dogmatic and positive and directed by the ability to withhold or give rewards and punishments. b) The democratic or participative leader: consulting with subordinates about the actions and decisions proposed and encourages participation thereof. c) The liberal: it uses very little power, if it does, as it gives subordinates a high degree of operational independence. These leaders rely heavily in their subordinates to set their own goals and means to achieve them and think their role is to support the operations of the followers.

Empirical Results

In Mexico, the cooperative is governed by the Ley General de Sociedades Cooperativas; (General Law of Cooperative Societies); and in the case of fishing cooperatives by the Ley General de pesca y Ley general del equilibrio ecológico y la protección al ambiente (General Fisheries Law and General Law of Ecological Equilibrium and Environmental Protection), among others, bring the regulatory framework for its operations, because fishing is developed exploiting natural resources.

In Sinaloa fisheries and aquaculture have strong social and economic impact (GDP national fisheries 22.72). The fisheries sector is made up of coastal fishermen of medium height and tall, who are organized, mainly in fisheries cooperative societies' fish production. 38% of employed personnel perform primary activities, of which 5% are engaged in fishing (INEGI, 2009). In the state of Sinaloa, commerce, agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting, accounted for 20.8% and 13.2% of the state GDP figures 5.5 and 9.5 percentage points above the relative shares of these sectors at national level (INEGI, 2011).

Fishing has been characterized as a productive activity with extensive involvement of the social and private sectors. In this activity, a diversity of species, especially for its large volumes of production resources is obtained; such as tuna, shrimp, sardine, scale fish, crabs, dogfish shark.

In Sinaloa there are over 500 fishing cooperatives, of which 141 have been authorized for catching shrimp (species known for high quality and value in the national and international level). The study was conducted in 12 cooperatives that are active in bays located in rural communities (municipalities of Culiacan and Navolato, in the center of the state).

Regarding the management of the cooperative, it was found that 40% are between 50-60 years old; while 33% are 40-50 years old; 61% primary studied; 92% are married; 64% having 1-3 children, while 33% have 4-6 children; 63% indicates that his father was a partner and manager of the cooperative, of which 44% was Secretary, President 22% and 16% supervisory board chairman.

23% of the executives surveyed indicate that they were chairmen of the board, while 32% supervisory board chairman, treasurer 23% and 16% vowel. 81% of managers indicated they received no training to perform their duties.

Regarding the behavior of the leader; 100% of the directors of the fishing cooperative partners are engaged in fishing; are elected by majority vote by the members of the organization, within the framework of the General Assembly (full board).

Under the bylaws of the cooperative, 100% of managers performs functions for the organization, direction and control of the capture and trade of the species caught; all indicate that the performance of its functions require the approval of the annual work plan presented at the meeting and note that one of the main respon-

sibilities is to manage funding for the operation of organization and the establishment of cooperation agreements with buyers of production.

For the organization of activities, 95% of managers indicated that the cooperative is divided into working groups, led by a leader who makes direct contact with the president of the cooperative;

85% of the managers performed over a period of two years; 10% for three years and 5% over four years. 100% of managers indicated that they weren't trained to perform the job, while 80% said that members did their job without the need of being told so; 95% indicates that the shrimp catch is supervised by the president of the supervisory board

Regarding the degree of power management, 100% of managers indicated that they perform their function while the members desire so, because they can be removed from office at any time. 70% of managers suggest that the relationship with members is warm, while 30% said that there are conflicts between managers and members. The vision that workers generally have is of the boss ordering, command, decide, and say what to do, impose criteria, allocate work, monitor and supervise the work.

100% of managers agree that the decision is made in consultation with the members, with the participation of all or the majority in the assembly meetings; likewise indicate that it is not easy to make effective decisions. On the other hand, 85% said that the information is insufficient to make quality decisions; 95% indicates that the performance of its functions are facing difficult to solve complex problems; 85% believe that their decisions are accepted by the partners.

Conclusions

Leadership is an important aspect of management; for that is to influence people to strive willingly and enthusiastically to achieve group goals. In theory it should encourage people to develop not only a willingness to work but also the desire to do it with confidence; so that leaders help the group achieve its objectives through the maximum use of his abilities.

The fishing cooperative is characterized by being primarily led by the chairman of the board, who is appointed by the general meeting of members to fulfill that mission. This person performs work mainly characterized by being participatory, democratic and equitable.

The planning function, as a necessary tool to perform successfully and safety activities of the cooperative, it is carried out by managers in a deficient way because it they aren't prepare for the job, ignore the way that must be done; they don't establish clear goals and performance targets.

It tends to make informal plans and of little technical knowledge in a short-term trend. There is an absence of some form of social planning, which would guide the

actions and results of the activities carried out to improve the social environment in which the organization operates.

The organizational structure, represented by the role of organization in the performance of managers is determined in its basic form by the general guidelines of the Ley General de Sociedades Cooperativas (General Law of Cooperative Societies), however each cooperative adapts the final form as needed. It's identified an existence of a simple, flexible and dynamic organizational structure in its performance, allowing it to adapt to the changing environment. In practice it has features to behave as a flat structure, where decisions are shared by all.

It is observed that the execution of tasks and functions are perform rather informal, since there are no manuals for the charges and procedures or person supervising the work of the group, since the tasks are shared among all members and between informality and trust it is ignore the proper monitoring, reviewing and troubleshooting tasks to implement corrective; monitoring is performed in the capture period (six months).

The managers of the studied cooperatives established policies to guide the operation of the cooperative, following the general guidelines of the meeting of members. The monitoring is done really shallow and just the simple fulfillment of tasks is found. There is a low level of formality, both in communication between members of the same, as in making various administrative decisions, but decisions that are medium to large importance are consulted with members of the same, thus achieving one participative management, with support from members.

The average education level of managers is mostly primary education, there are no plans for improvement and training, which means a low level of education, which influences the final results of the management of the organization. Also there are few incentives for workers recognition of achievements; perhaps this is due to lack of resources and lack of awareness of the need to assess the work of the members of the cooperative.

The managers, in their behavior as leaders, perform democratic and participatory leadership. Only when exceeded can be very liberal, but overall the trend is democratic. The atmosphere of brotherhood and camaraderie that exists within the cooperative, determines the presence of a communicative, open, flexible and democratic management, but mainly to maintain close contact with members of the cooperative.

The absence of an environment of punishment and tension, characteristic of organizations with autocratic leaders, in the cooperative generates greater participation in the various activities in which the views of members is required, which gives a sense of belonging to the members of the cooperative.

In general it is concluded that managers of the fishing cooperative has particular characteristics that differentiate organizations in the public and private sectors. The

cooperative leader is a social leader by nature, democratic, participatory and eager to promote cooperatives as a lifestyle that seeks to improve society. However, little scientific and technical knowledge in administrative and managerial areas determine weaknesses in their development, which may affect the results of the current management.

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The organizational culture in the fishing cooperative society of Sinaloa

Abstract: Organizational culture is a phenomenon that identifies members of the fishing cooperative “Península Lucenilla” as part of the values, symbols, ideology, customs, language, among others. The importance of organizational culture identifies those who belong to a union, because they are hard-working, talkative, enthusiastic, responsible, and ethical people.

Research aimed to analyze the organizational culture in the fishing cooperative of Sinaloa. The study was conducted with a qualitative approach; through a study case. Data collection was carried out from members of the cooperative, as well as a couple of interviews to the president.

The main results of the study indicate that organizational culture in the fishing cooperative of Sinaloa is manifested in all of the activities that fishermen performed when the ban is lifted, how shrimp and other fishes are delivered.

Based on that, we conclude that organizational culture identifies those who belong to an organization that represents the lifestyle of fishermen, for example; as in the case of a fishing cooperative.

Key words: organizational culture, fishing cooperative

Introducción

Organizational culture decides the identity that people have in an organization. It is a topic that many authors have defined coincide with the idea of talking about

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the customs, ideology, beliefs, artifacts and activities that occur within organizations and determine the behavior of employees, identifying them. Moreover, as Daft (2007: 361) argues, organizational culture ‘is perceived but the unwritten part of the organization.

The objective of this research is to analyze the organizational culture of the fishing cooperative of Sinaloa. Specifically, the fishing cooperative “Península Lucenilla” located in the Bay of Altata in Navolato, Sinaloa, was investigated was a study in depth about the values, beliefs, language and ideology of fishermen associated in a particular cooperative with a committee that represents it.

The cooperative is an association formed by people called “partners”, gather in assemblies to make arrangements and help its members. We can identify different cooperatives: the associated work, pharmaceutical, agricultural, savings and credit services, fisheries, among others.

Fishing cooperatives in Mexico are governed by the General Law of Cooperative Societies, published in the Official Gazette on August 13, 1994 and its last revision was published DOF 13-08-2009. This Act establishes the directions to be followed by these organizations that are part of cooperatives and are based on a series of articles that serve to shape and can be set up to enforce their rights and obligations are regulated.

Currently Sinaloa cooperatives have taken hold, contrary to what people might think. The objectives of cooperative work are crucial for fishermen take this form of organization as an alternative to gain access to the products of the oceans, in addition to market. But even more important are the support given by the government, which individually could not achieve.

Although not identified extreme poverty in fishing cooperatives located in Altata, in the town of Navolato, Sinaloa, fishermen seeking other activities, such as tourism, which helps them obtain other employment.

Methods

The manner in which this research was addressed was through a qualitative methodology, this approach according Bonilla and Rodriguez (2000) cited in Bernal (2010), aims to develop more specific and not to generalize things, but to make this decision first made an exploratory study to Rojas (2011), “exploratory study aims to gather information to recognize” data to determine how to address the analysis. Una vez que se hizo el estudio exploratorio acudiendo al lugar geográfico del sujeto de estudio, se fue conociendo poco a poco la forma de organización de la sociedad cooperativa que permitió el acceso.

A survey of twenty-five of the fifty-five of the members of the cooperative, for convenience and for the results that were obtained are made. The survey was conducted in June 2013 in the homes of fishermen and in the building of “La Lonja” where the cooperative is located.

The total of the questions were twenty, and multiple choice questions were, closed and open. Plus a couple of interviews were chairman and 6 members more seniority also made observation, analysis of documents and photographs of the fishermen were taken when they were administered the surveys, and when they were doing their job, in their houses in the village, also the building where the cooperative is located, to gear, to craft, and fishing products.

Current knowledge on Organizational Culture

Every organization has a culture that distinguishes and identifies and directs it towards certain types of actions and ways of working; while that culture governs perceptions and the image that people form of it (Hernandez Gallarzo, Espinoza, 2011: 92).

The word culture comes from the Latin cults (“cultivated”) and -ura (“action”, “result of an action”), meaning “cultivation”, “agriculture” or “instruction.” In a similar sense, this term belongs to the family cotorce (cultivar, dwell) and colows (settler, farmer, peasant). Over time, the word acquired culture different meanings. One indicates a mixture of traits and spiritual and emotional features that characterize a society or social group in a given period. Also encompasses lifestyles, ceremonies, art, inventions, technology, value systems, fundamental rights of human beings, traditions and beliefs. This concept is used for a long time to refer to a product of the interaction activity of society. However, since 1980, Tom Peters and Robert Waterman, McKinsey consultants, anthropological and psychosocial adapted this concept to organizations (Hernández et al. 2011:91).

Table 1. Definition of organizational culture

AUTHOR	CONTRIBUTION
Richard L. Daft (2001:361)	Define what culture „is the set of values, norms, guiding and shared by members of an organization, same as new members are taught understandings beliefs.”
Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly (2001:67)	„A national culture is a set of values, beliefs, and shared by a majority of the inhabitants of a country standards. These become incorporated in the laws and regulations of the society, as well as generally accepted standards of the country’s social system. “
Idalbertho Chiavenato (2004:120)	Define culture: „Every society or nation has a culture that influences the behavior of individuals and organizations. Culture includes shared, policy work, traditions and objectives that are passed from one generation to another „values.

Ronald B. Adler, Jeanne Marquardt Elmhorst (2005:39)	Cultural diversity and communication „is a fact in the world of work today. Consider the following statistics. In the 1970s it was estimated that eight of every American was black or Hispanic or Asian origin; for the 1990s things had changed, so that one in four belonged to one of these groups. “
Carlos Fernández Col-lado, Laura Galguera García (2008:172)	Define: „Since it was the West know the culture of different nations to communicate and, most importantly, to negotiate with them.”
Angelo Kinicki, Robert Kreitner (2008:30)	Define: „Organizational culture is the set of shared and implicit as-sumptions that are taken for granted, in a group, which determines how the group perceives its various environments, thinks about and reacts to it themselves.”
Stephen Robins (2011:595)	Defines culture as „common perception held by members of the organization, system of shared meaning.”
Jorge A. Hernández, Manuel Gallardo, José de J. Espinoza (2011:92)	Define organizational culture is a set of behaviors that are shared by members of an organization.

Source: Prepared with information from authors.

“Culture provides members with a sense of organizational identity and generates in them a commitment to the beliefs and values that are larger than themselves” (Daft, 2007: 361).

According to Daft (2007: 362), culture serves two critical functions of organizations: 1) integrate members so they know how to relate to each other, and 2) help the organization to adapt to the environment. Internal integration means that members develop a collective identity and know how to work together effectively. The external adaptation refers to the way in which organizations achieve their goals and treat external. Culture helps guide the daily activities of workers to achieve certain goals.

Organizational culture is part of the working life of all. The manifestations of culture in organizations include formal practices (eg, wage levels, hierarchy, structure, job descriptions and other written policies); informal practices (eg performance standards), employees of the organization have stories to explain “how things are done around here,” rituals (such as Christmas parties and retirement dinners), humor (jokes about work and co-workers); jargon (special language), and physical arrangements (including the interior decoration, the dress and organizational).

Cooperative societies emerge into the world as an alternative to work together by those who compose it and most of the time, to fill the void left by the big companies. In Mexico, the cooperative societies work differently from other firms is because their partners are the owners and managers of management, production and marketing of goods produced. In the case of fisheries cooperatives, partners affect them directly gains or losses obtained from the activities carried out; are those who know the art of fishing, which is the right time to do it, know the situation in which the product is, they warn that climate changes affecting seafood.

The fishing cooperatives are created due to the need for fishermen to organize and profit, seeking to improve the areas where they arise; economically disadvantaged areas, often marginalized; and aim to find the livelihoods of families living in these areas.

Culture plays an important role in their activities fishermen, the president of the cooperative should consider each of the cultural events additionally perform a ritual when “start” fishing, obtaining the raw material for the Arts this activity, meeting the needs of fishermen, as well as be aware of what they catch.

History of the fishing cooperative “Lucenilla”

The Fisheries Cooperative Riparian Lucenilla Peninsula began in known address in the Port of Altata with registration No. 8033-P. It is located in the Bay of Altata municipality of Navolato, Sinaloa; one of 18 in the state; by its proximity to Culiacan, the state capital, receives a large influx of visitors, attracted by the gastronomy, the main attraction of this place. Lucenilla belongs to the Federation of Sea Waters of Ensenada Bay and Altata Pavilion, comprising twelve cooperatives.

The cooperative was founded in 1982, the first committee was led by Jorge Luis Valenzuela. Arnolando Valenzuela Quinonez as secretary, Humberto Contreras and Gerardo Hernandez Leyva Leobardo.

Fishermen Bay Altata have several benefits by becoming as cooperatives, as being organized, seeking greater government support; so members have the opportunity to place your product in a safe manner, to commercialize and profit thereby. The number of members varies between 55 and 70 use the technique of Suripera.¹

The cooperative “Lucenilla” has permission to fish shrimp, shark, flake and clam. And it is one of the three most successful cooperatives in Altata, Sinaloa, Mexico. Its chairman until July 2014, Mr. Avelardo Quinonez has participated in various events related to fishermen nationwide, and also worked a few months ago to train fishermen in the country of Nicaragua.

Altata is located at coordinates: longitude and latitude 243808 1075557, an average height of one meter above sea level. Its population to date is 2001 people, of which 1022 are male and 979 female. The economically active population is 776 people (INEGI, 2012). In Navolato, predominantly warm dry climate, with summer rains and low throughout the year. The average annual temperature is 24 ° C, where the annual rainfall ranges 433.5 to 511.6 in millimeters, (Enciclopedia de los Municipios y Delegaciones de México, 2013).

¹ The cast net „Suripera” or „Dragona” is an active network or removable during operation, consisting of a semi-conical skirt with leads in its widest part, which graze the bottom (National Fisheries Institute 2000). The narrowest part of the skirt contains funnels and handbags, wherein, gets caught shrimp to climb the skirt. The network operates according to water currents and / or wind (Inapesca 2013, disponible en: <http://www.wwf.org.mx>. 20 de Julio de 2013)

Results

Culture in an organization can be manifested in different ways. It is said that organizations work through rituals; each of the activities performed by employees becomes a ritual, for example, a fisherman gets up very early, meets each of the items that take up fishing and performs every time you go fishing, meticulously and rigorous, each of the actions. Another manifestation, are myths; In most organizations there are beliefs, which in many cases are not real.

The legends arise Altata Bay; stories, some of the times fictional plagued counted. Another way you can identify the culture is language, as each organization has his own. Fishermen have a very colloquial language, with words considered grotesque or aggressive. The artifacts and objects are essential, have a terminology that only they identify. Altata fishermen from months before they begin to build networks called “monkeys” or also known as “hammocks”; have a whole methodology to develop them, and regularly do more experienced fishermen.

With respect to culture, it is identified that members of the fishing cooperative “Lucenilla” perform a series of rituals as they go fishing they believe in a supreme being who blesses when you start fishing, celebrate the day of the ocean, the day father and inns.

The aspect that comes to light whenever they ask question about problems they are fishermen, closed season is the shrimp, main product have fished for years, and, as time passes, are less likely to get, as they face a series of problems to go fishing.

Moreover, fishermen agree to continue to work cooperatively for the marketability of its products, in addition to preventing poaching and receive the support provided to them by government agencies, although insufficient, to date gives some security to continue their activity.

In this research, the fishing cooperative organization described from a cultural perspective, values are Identified, beliefs, ideology, customs, language, symbols, the founders.

Fishermen have values such as responsibility, hard work, early, respect the time of closure; believe in a higher being, but also afraid to legendary beings who for years have thought exist: one example, when they say a fisherman to go fishing for the first time “has to suck anchor” to be at sea ; identifies ideology as they are convinced that it is, for example, when not go fishing, based on the meaning of the moons, “when the moon is full there will be good fishing”; Fishermen gather in the house of a partner, or go to “La Lonja” for the day, although they are not fishing.

They also meet in the evenings to play volleyball, play tennis games made by themselves ground even do barefoot; fishermen have slang, used some words that only they understand, but also have no verbal language that makes communicating at a distance when they are fishing; symbols used by fishermen, ranging from what a shrimp on the letterhead printed using the cooperative, to the knowledge of the

lunar images. The founders of the cooperative partners, are of great importance, because at present remain a fundamental part of the organization of society.

Today, the fishing cooperatives have been transformed; to what the founders of these organizations was a simple task of great abundance, today becomes complicated and uncertain for several reasons that were identified in the research findings. On one hand, there are large organizations engaged in fishing, and secondly, the rapid population growth and the lack of care for the environment, has resulted in a time shorter fishing, marine products and in particular shrimp, very little time is left on the shore of the bay, and when the harvest begins, most of the crustaceans migrate to sea.

The abundance of seafood that was twenty years ago, today it is no longer, so the fishermen, together with government authorities concerned with this situation, have had to make steps to resolve it.

Concluding remarks

With regard to the findings in the diagnosis of results, analysis of documents, is an organization that has a culture of identity that makes it unique, and that during all the time that has existed, it has made a reputation, so that those who belong to “Lucenilla” fishermen are responsible and ethical employees, as opposed to the other two cooperatives in the Bay Altata; in this cooperative poaching does not occur, they have very clear that it is unethical and will receive greater support if they work in a coordinated manner; there are upward and downward communication. All this could be identified in the answers they gave fishers when asked about the subject of each of the analysis categories.

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Building diverse and inclusive organizational culture-best practices: A case study of Cisco Co.

Abstract: In management theory and business practice the dealing with a diverse workforce has played a leading role in recent years. In a globalizing economy companies recognized potential benefits of a multicultural workforce and tried to create more inclusive work environments. Unfortunately many of them have been disappointed with the results they achieved. The reason for this is that too little attention has been paid for the norms, values and behaviors involved. Given the fact that diversity is essentially about cultural norms and values, appropriate reflection work becomes a fundamental task to create a truly inclusive work environment where people coming out from diverse backgrounds feel respected and recognized. The paper focus on the challenge of building an inclusive diversity culture showing that a “culture of inclusion” has to be built on solid grounds. It shed light on the process of developing such a culture in CISCO corporation which serves as an example of a good practice in this respect.

Key words: good practice, corporate culture, diversity management, HRM

Introduction

One of the major challenges in today’s diverse work environment is the search for the principles to form business activities and guide actors, corporations and individuals. While diversity has been a much debated topic in management theory and practice in recent years, it were initially legal aspects (the avoidance of law-suits) and changes in the labor market demographics (increased participation of women and minorities) that made it a subject of prime importance for corporations. Nowadays there is growing awareness among managers that diversity management should go much further than just complying with existing rules or reacting to a change in labor market resources. In management literature it is argued that the challenges within competitive, dynamic, and increasingly global markets (demand-

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ing innovation, creativity as well as flexibility) are best met by a broadened pool of experience and knowledge found in an effectively managed diverse workforce [Cox T.H., Blake S., 1991; Mazur B., 2012]. The innovative and creative potential inherent to a diverse workforce (in terms of ethnic origin, nationality, cultural background, religion, gender, age, education, lifestyle, working style, way of thinking, etc.) can be used to bridge cultural boundaries and search for original problem solutions, innovative product ideas and targeted marketing initiatives. This diversity can become a competitive advantage [Cox T.H., Blake S., 1991].

Many organizations already have diversity policies or initiatives such as training programs in place, but they often do not show the required results like the creation of an atmosphere of inclusion [Gilbert J.A., Invancevich J.M., 2000]. They cannot achieve the benefits of diversity, let alone build a culture that embraces diversity and fosters humanity. The reason for this is the selective approach to managing diversity: assimilation, that is as opposed to integration and inclusion. The assimilation approach ignores differences among employees. Women, expatriates and minorities are more or less expected to assimilate into a pre-defined and dominant corporate culture [Thomas D.A., Gabarro J.J., 1999]. Not being heard, recognized or valued, their specific knowledge and experience is not leveraged, they cannot perform to their highest potential and they experience difficulties in advancing within the organization. Such an environment neither fosters the realization of the potential for diversity nor the retention of talented people with diverse backgrounds. Diversity management has to be built on solid normative grounds, on founding principles, understood as pillars of a *culture of inclusion* [Pless N.M., Maak T., 2004, p.129]. Following an inclusionary approach, differences are recognized, valued and engaged. Different voices are understood as being legitimate and as opening up new perspectives; they are heard and integrated in decision making and problem solving processes; they have an active role in shaping culture and fostering creativity and innovation; and in adding value to the company's performance. In order to unleash the potential of workforce diversity, a culture of inclusion needs to be established; a culture that fosters enhanced workforce integration and brings to life latent diversity potentials; a culture that is built on clarified normative grounds and honors the differences as well as the similarities of the individual self and others. Diversity is, first and foremost, a cultural question and thus a question of norms, values, beliefs and expectations [Pless N.M., Maak T., 2004, p.129]. As such, it is an ethical question and determined by some very essential founding principles of human coexistence. Not before this is taken into consideration, acknowledged and institutionalized, can "diversity management" be successful. However diversity may have started out in a corporation - as a response to legislative mandates, as a reaction to the shortage in qualified personnel or to become more attractive for young talents- it is important to realize that diversity management will not unleash any potential

benefits unless diversity is culturally valued [Pless N.M., Maak T., 2004, p.130].

The main purpose of the paper is to indicate, to companies operating on multicultural markets, how an inclusive corporate culture can be created. Cisco Co. is presented as an example of good practice to be benchmarked for companies with less experience in managing diversity. The basic information about Cisco Co. and its culture comes from the company's webpage. The paper consists of three parts. It starts by introducing the term of inclusive diversity culture, the concept of organizational best practices is discussed next. It finishes with the presentation of diversity and inclusion in corporate culture of Cisco Co.

An inclusive diversity culture

When talking about a *culture of inclusion* it is about an organizational environment that allows people with multiple backgrounds, mindsets and ways of thinking to work effectively together and to perform to their highest potential in order to achieve organizational objectives based on sound principles. In such an environment different voices are respected and heard, diverse viewpoints, perspectives and approaches are valued and every employee is encouraged to make a unique and meaningful contribution. In order to bring such a *vision of inclusion* to life definitions of diversity and inclusion need to be established.

Diversity and inclusion are terms frequently used together. At the first glance diversity describes the spectrum of human similarities and differences. Inclusion, on the other hand, describes the way an organization configures opportunity, interaction, communication, information and decision-making to utilize the potential of diversity. Achieving inclusion means creating the structures, policies and practices in organizational life that recognize more than one view and signal the importance of learning from differences [Mazur B., 2009, pp. 34-46]. Inclusion refers to the systemic nature of an organization. It is not necessarily limited to the way an organization deals with employees; it may refer to interactions with customers and clients, partners, vendors, suppliers, and subcontractors as well.

In response to intensifying global competition, more and more organizations are striving to create inclusive work environments that can offer dramatic improvements in productivity, quality, creativity, customer service, job satisfaction and talent retention [Cox T.H., Blake S., 1991, p.47]. Those experiencing the greatest success tend to be those that make creating and sustaining an organizational culture of inclusion a leadership priority, and establish tangible ways of holding leaders throughout the organization accountable for making quantifiable progress. Companies to better understand the needs of its consumers, helping modify and create products to suit a variety of tastes. To properly manage diversity, companies need to focus on creating inclusive cultures. Building an inclusive culture takes time. Once achieved, inclusive cultures help companies handle future conflict and respond to changes in the work environment.

Defining Diversity

Diversity has been an evolving concept. Many writers define diversity as any significant difference that distinguishes one individual from another - a description that encompasses a broad range of overt and hidden qualities. Generally, researchers organize diversity characteristics into four areas: *personality* (traits, skills and abilities), *internal* (gender, race, ethnicity, I.Q., sexual orientation), *external* (culture, nationality, religion, marital or parental status), and *organizational* (position, department, union/non-union) [Johnson J.P., 2003; Simmons-Welburn J., 1999]. The trend in defining diversity seems to favor a broad definition, one that goes beyond the visible differences. One of the first researchers to use this inclusive definition, R. Roosevelt Thomas, Jr., was pivotal in moving diversity thinking beyond narrow categories. He argued that to manage diversity successfully, organizations must recognize that race and gender are only two of many diversity factors. Managers and leaders must expand their perspective on diversity to include a variety of other dimensions [Thomas R.R., 1992, p. xv]. Workplace diversity management, in his model, is also inclusive, defined as a “comprehensive managerial process for developing an environment that works for all employees” [Thomas R.R., 1992, p.10]. This general definition also enables all staff to feel included rather than excluded, permitting them to connect and fortify relationships that enable employees to deal with more potentially volatile issues that may later arise.

Defining Inclusion

Inclusion is a component of a company's culture. This allows companies to attract a wider range of qualified employees, as today's job seekers increasingly base employment decisions on a company's culture and reputation. The light should be shed on the real challenge of inclusion, stating it's to find common cause for important work. This can't be done effectively if employees isolate themselves from each another based on differences such as race, culture, nationality, gender, ability, and personality. Inclusion doesn't mean an employee has to like everyone they work with, but they must still respect the opinions of fellow employees. Allowing companies to quiet cultural discord inclusion is a set of policies, procedures, programs, set of norms, and actions that create an environment where the people who make up this diversity are able to use their difference to a company's benefit, not to its detriment.

Managing diversity and inclusion best practices

Best practices are defined as practices which are most appropriate under the circumstances, especially as considered acceptable or regulated in business; techniques or methodologies that, through experience and research, have reliably led to desired or optimum results. Part of the challenge in identifying best practices in diversity management is that the field lacks empirical research assessing particular

diversity practices to determine if they will produce ‘desired or optimum’ results [Coats R., Goodwin J., Bangs P., 2000; Pitts D., 2006]. Most writing is descriptive. Two core resources for workplace diversity best practices are Aronson’s [2002] article on *Managing the diversity revolution: Best practices for 21st century business* and the U.S. G.A.O.’s [2005] report on Diversity management: *Expert-identified leading practices and agency examples*. Aronson gives an overview of workplace diversity, outlining how to institute a diversity initiative, summarizing the principles on which it should be based, and providing a substantial number of best practices examples implemented by various companies. The GAO’s review included a comprehensive literature review, a detailed analysis of the writings of five diversity experts, and interviews with an additional 14 experts. From this process, they identified nine best practices. According to P. Kreitz the two works compliment each other. Aronson’s business perspective and wealth of best practices detail is balanced by the GAO’s non-profit agency examples and its high-level focus on diversity principles [Kreitz P., 2007, p.4].

The GAO’s nine leading best practices are:

1. **Top leadership commitment** - a vision of diversity demonstrated and communicated throughout an organization by top-level management.
2. **Diversity as part of an organization’s strategic plan** - a diversity strategy and plan that are developed and aligned with the organization’s strategic plan.
3. **Diversity linked to performance** - the understanding that a more diverse and inclusive work environment can yield greater productivity and help improve individual and organizational performance.
4. **Measurement** - a set of quantitative and qualitative measures of the impact of various aspects of an overall diversity program.
5. **Accountability** - the means to ensure that leaders are responsible for diversity by linking their performance assessment and compensation to the progress of diversity initiatives.
6. **Succession planning** - an ongoing, strategic process for identifying and developing a diverse pool of talent for an organization’s potential future leaders.
7. **Recruitment** - the process of attracting a supply of qualified, diverse applicants for employment.
8. **Diversity training** - organizational efforts to inform and educate management and staff about diversity’s benefits to the organization [GAO 2005, p. 4].

Aronson’s analysis presents top-level best practices but also drills down into more detailed and specific advice and examples of tactics, practices, and policies. He begins with the same requirement as the GAO’s analysis—commitment from the top - with a similar focus on communication and demonstration which he calls concrete actions. Defining diversity as inclusiveness, he asserts that the second best practice is ‘bringing people on board’. While this practice did not make the GAO’s list, from many diversity experts’ writings [Mor Borak M., 2005; Thomas R.R.,

1992], employee involvement is critical to building workplace diversity success. His third practice, which is implied by several of the practices the GAO identified, is assessing where an organization currently stands, that is, a diversity audit. His suggestions for how to conduct this audit match the advice given in a number of other textbooks and articles on diversity [Love J.B., 2001; Winston M.D., Li H., 2000]. The fourth, and the most detailed, best practice mirrors the GAO's second practice. An organization must develop a strategic plan to promote diversity and Aronson's includes six critical elements:

- A compelling analysis of the business case identifying diversity's advantage(s) for the organization.
- Recommendations for involving all employees in the diversity effort.
- Institutionalization of the diversity initiative through an office or individual responsible for the strategic plan at the executive level.
- Clearly defined goals tied to the gaps found through the diversity audit and the business goals.
- Diversity metrics to track progress toward those goals.
- Accountability metrics which hold managers responsible for meeting diversity goals [Aronson D., 2002, pp. 16-18].

After discussing these four best practices, Aronson describes in detail many policies, processes, and tactics used to incorporate diversity into an organization. He categorizes these more specific best practices into five areas: recruitment and hiring, promotion and career advancement, alternative dispute resolution, management accountability, and human factors. In each section, he provides numerous examples of successful implementation tactics to support that best practice. At the end of his article, Aronson includes a best practices cheat sheet comprised of 46 one- to two-line suggestions for successfully implementing a diversity initiative. Let's add to Aronson's list another example of successfully implemented diversity in the workplace.

Diversity and inclusion as a Good Practice in CISCO Corporation

Cisco slogan reads: culture employees ...are our competitive advantage

Sandy Hoffman, Cisco Chief Diversity Officer, declares: "We believe that inclusion and diversity is key to redefining how we collaborate, connect, communicate, and work. When embraced, I and D can fuel our innovation engine and help redefine our culture moving forward".

Cisco co. operates in 165 countries worldwide. It engages more than 74,000 workers, out of which 28,000 (39%) are engineers, and utilizes 170 labs around the world. It has nearly 70,000 channel partners and holds more than 17,000 patents. The company has executed nearly 170 acquisitions since 1993. The broad portfolio of Cisco's integrated products and solutions places it either at the market leader or

challenger position in most market segments it serves. The vision of the company is to help to change the way the world works, lives, plays, and learns. It's strategy focuses on solving customers' most important business challenges by delivering intelligent networks and technology architectures built on integrated products, services, and software platforms.

Incorporated in 1984, Cisco had a culture based on the principles of customer focus, transparent communication, employee empowerment, integrity, and frugality. Therefore for Cisco, building an inclusive and diverse organization is an ongoing and essential business imperative. The company's management believes it is their responsibility to:

- Empower their teams
- Eliminate biases
- Create an environment where everyone feels welcomed, valued, respected, and heard.

By partnering with their business leaders, human resource organizations, and key stakeholders and constituents, the company has built a holistic diversity framework. They have constructed an Inclusion and Diversity Coalition, a global team that advises and supports Cisco executives at the function and region level. Along with established inclusion and diversity ambassadors, it includes advocates in the field. The team helps to accelerate program execution by reinforcing inclusion and diversity communication and expectations.

Cisco believes that the great leaders will be those who incorporate considerations of diversity and inclusion into their habits as leaders and into the mainstream of their organizations. It moreover declares:

- Only through a culture of inclusion can we connect and serve new customers in emerging unexplored markets, reaching people, places and potential-ensuring our continued success.
- Innovation is fueled by an inclusive environment where employees are fully engaged.
- Both managers and individual contributors are measured upon creating a culture of inclusion - it is up to all of us!
- The goal for a manager is to lead across geographic and functional boundaries to include others equally; hire employees who complement and add diversity to existing teams; leverage diverse suppliers; address biased, disrespectful and/or intolerant behaviors, creating an environment where every member of the team is encouraged to voice views; demonstrate support for flexible work practices and inclusion forums.

According to Cisco, the ways in which the Managers should Enact the Inclusion and Diversity Goals are as follows:

- Schedule meetings at times that accommodate all geographies; make an effort to

have face to face meetings with employees in other locations via WebEx, and/ or TelePresence.

- Hire employees who complement and add diversity to existing teams. Broaden recruitment sources rather than always recruiting from the same talent pool.
- Include diverse suppliers when using outside resources for contracted products or services.
- Avoid making judgments about people based on assumptions or personal bias. Effectively address inappropriate behavior (*based on culture, race, gender, age, personality, or other differences*) and intervene if observed.
- Lead by example and actively encourage others to practice inclusion. Create an environment where every member of the team is encouraged to voice their opinions and provide their contribution.
- Demonstrate support for flexible work practices. Encourage use and approve request of FWP as much as possible. Share program details with team and become familiar with options to discuss as part of development planning.
- Encourage employees to take a leadership role or participate in employee resource groups (*ERGs*). Participates as an Ambassador, or member of diversity/ inclusion leadership team for function/group.
- Acquire perspectives from a variety of team members to solve problems and achieve business objectives.
- Recognize and reward people based on performance, rather than association with any “favored” group or clique.

The advantages of an Inclusive and Diverse Culture, observed by the company, are the following:

- Attracting and engaging a multicultural, multigenerational, multi-talented global workforce is a must to drive new levels of creativity and collaboration which fuel innovation.
- Serving the changing needs of an increasingly diverse set of global customers requires an organization with people that can understand, relate and respond.
- Inclusion and Diversity is good for the bottom line.

The corporation names the benefits of an Inclusive and Diverse Culture for a single employee:

- It raises the value of differences as the vital source of new ideas, new thinking and innovation.
- It encourages a new level of curiosity and knowledge of others, as an essential need, to use the best in everyone.
- It enables rich communication with an openness for new thinking and advances the possibilities through technology.
- It emphasizes personal responsibility as a core value; challenging us to keep it top of mind; inspires others to do the same by our example.
- It brings people together in new and different combinations to collaborate

and promote innovation, new technology, new business models and new opportunities to grow.

- It makes Cisco a great place to work.

The Next Steps to be taken by Cisco employees read as follows:

- Identify the two or three areas that you focused on which contributed to an inclusive and diverse culture.
- Record the specific actions you took and the results achieved.

Before taken them the self-assessment tool which is a part of the “Inclusion & Diversity” section in Cisco’s “Performance Review” should be introduced. The questionnaire is to be filled out individually and for personal use only. The tool’s aim is to indicate respondent’s proximity to fulfilling Cisco’s goals of the “Individual Contributor”. Amongst the goals to be accomplished, one can name the following: an Individual Contributor is not oblivious to intolerant behaviors, includes others equally in the workplace and participates actively in inclusion forums.

- The respondent is to rate nine statements with regards to the frequency of his/her personal behavior. A scale of 1 to 5 is presented, where 1 indicates “rarely”, 5 indicates “always” and numbers 2, 3 and 4 indicate the intensity of “sometimes”. The statements concern the following issues: recognizing culture, time zone and generational differences in order to include others in the work, taking action when witnessing a disrespectful or hurtful situation towards others in the workplace, actively socializing with people from varied backgrounds, seeking numerous perspectives from different specialists in order to accomplish the business goals most innovatively, listening to opinions of others respectfully, accepting different viewpoints and showing that every opinion is meaningful, participating in an Employee Resource Group and Cisco’s Inclusion and Diversity program. After answering the questionnaire, the respondent is asked to count his/her score and see whether his/her personal expectations have been met.

Cisco co. claims it is “up to you” to:

- Promote a culture of inclusion, trust, and mutual respect - guarantee that everyone who does business with you, or who works with you, will experience a culture of inclusion, trust, and mutual respect. Tolerate nothing less.
- Lead by example every day - appreciate differences. Model inclusiveness more by your actions than your words. As Gandhi said, „Be the change you want to see in the world”.
- Integrate diversity and inclusion considerations into your mainstream business - procedures, practices, programs, and behavior. Consider who you invite into your inner circle, who you talk with, spend time with, and get to know.

Conclusions

When measured over the last ten years, companies with strong inclusion and diversity initiatives had a 23.5% higher shareholder return than others. Today's organizations face increasing demands for responsiveness, adaptability, innovation, speed, and responsible corporate citizenship. No organization can afford to dismiss the potential benefits of having a diverse and inclusive culture. Organizations wishing to become more inclusive to cultural diversity may choose to examine all their organizational policies and practices to ensure that not only are they not discriminatory but the systems and values actually contribute to making an inclusive and welcoming organizational culture. It is not enough to add new ways of working, if we do not remove old systems that reinforce the exclusionary practices nor surface the values that underlie them. We must be sure to address these underlying systemic and cultural factors.

The model of corporate culture founded on diversity and inclusion, as exemplified by Cisco Co., has a significant impact on further development of human relations school in management. Although the presentation of good practices in creating inclusive culture was limited to a single company, it can be assumed that Cisco Co. is the leader in creating good practices. The establishing of inclusive corporate culture is a process which needs to be managed. Further research could discover who is involved in this process and what its stages are. Implications of the presented good practice in establishing inclusive culture in organizations are limited mainly to a number of companies which would like to follow the example of Cisco Co.

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Entrepreneurial orientation in family firms – management and intercultural development

Abstract: This paper has taken an insight to the systemic models of family business from the open systems perspective. I focus on family business system models and on the subsystems content of family system and ownership system in family business context. The paper claim that the open system perspective on intercultural family businesses has both theoretical and empirical implications on family business research. Family businesses have many reasons, including family conflicts over money, nepotism leading to wrong management, and infighting over the succession of power from one generation to the other. Regulating the family's roles as shareholders, board members, and managers is very important because it can help avoid these pitfalls.

This paper will discuss the importance of the openness of the company through five the attributes of enduring family businesses: ownership, family, business and portfolio governance, wealth management, foundation. Dimension of attributes success have taken family business like five jewelers.

Key words: entrepreneurship, family businesses, attributes of management, wealth management, portfolio governance.

Introduction

Openness system management of business family is a pro-development. This paper has taken an insight to the systemic models of family business from the open systems perspective. It focus on family business system models and on the subsystems content of family system and ownership system in family business context [Walicka M., 2013, pp. 441-448]. The paper claim that the open system perspective on family businesses has both theoretical and empirical implications on family business research. Family business concerns an open system that includes

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the family like a collective level doing business and securing continuity [Chrisman J.J., et.al. 2003, pp. 1045-1050]. Family businesses are possible although the family members own several companies, and that these companies may differ from each other very drastically. This system contains smaller pieces, like private businesses owned together with the family and businesses owned by individual family members. As the same time the open system, like the family business system is in solid relationship with its environment through each subsystem, such as businesses and family members. The family business development including both collective and individual reasoning and decisions concerning the control and responsibilities over businesses. Furthermore, ownership is often defined and treated as a relationship between the owner and the object. Ownership builds on the idea that ownership concerns human beings and ownable objects within an environment. But that the fundamental character of ownership is the power-influence position it gives to the owner in the social-material context. The Polish Model of Ownership should be included element directing the development of the family business system than it has been currently. This paper will discuss the importance of the openness of the company through five the attributes of enduring family businesses: ownership, family, business and portfolio governance, wealth management, foundation. Dimension of attributes success have taken family business like five Polish jewelers.

Openness system models family business – current state of knowledge

Theory about openness system models is a transdisciplinary approach. The main point is to study general principles of system functioning to be applied for all types of systems in all fields of research. The development in family business system models—a case study theoretical and empirical treatment of system models has been from closed to open systems [Kast and Rosenzweig, 1972, pp. 450-460]. Furthermore, it has been noted that the early system theorists didn't totally ignore the outer world in their reasoning. There are independent notions that it is difficult to find phenomena that are occurring in totally isolated or closed systems [Ashmos and Huber, 1987, pp. 610-621].

Habbershon and Pistrui [2002, pp. 230-234] has taken the unified systems approach to show performance that links the resources and capabilities generated in the enterprising families system with their potential for transgenerational wealth creation. Family firms are phenomena as a result of the involvement of the family through ownership, governance, management, and vision. Also, the family may have a vision for the transgenerational value creation [Chrisman J.J., et al., 2003, pp. 470-472]. The same familial coalition generates distinctive “familiness.” Like trying to build a familiness model, researchers have used different perspectives and views to explain what familiness means in family business.

Researchers have defined and identified the construct of familiness as resources and capabilities that are possibilities to the family's involvement and interactions in

the business [Habbershon T.G., et al, 2003, pp. 451-465; Zellweger, Eddleston and Kellermanns, 2010, pp.54-63; Frank et al., 2010, pp.12-130]. As well as Habbershon and Williams [1999, pp. 10-25] were among the first to introduce the term familiness later on, Chrisman, Chua and Litz [2003, pp. 467-470] defined it as resources and capabilities related to family involvement and interactions.

Although, the open-systems approach [Pieper T.M., Klein S.B., 2007, pp. 301-310] is used in combining the various elements of a family business. It means the unique characteristics and diversity of family businesses and addresses the activity among family business subsystems (multiple level of analysis My opinion that, the openness of the system takes place in the level of each subsystem, thus leading the system to be in constant interaction with business environment [Czemieli-Grzybowska W., 2013, pp.12]. The development of the family business should be understood by studying the behaviour of the individual members of the family and studying the needs of the eventual separate businesses within the family business structure.

This case studies by focus on optimization and quality together with the centralized open system management approach then results in efficient exploitation of existing family business activities. This is reflected in thesis: Polish family businesses identify their characteristics as attributes the success of their activity.

Methodology of case study

This study applies five case study of Polish jewelry family business. The first is Pracownia Jubilerska Stankiewicz Piotr. The business operates from three generations. Currently now, there have working Piotr, son Piotr, daughter Catherine and helps to spot the wife of Piotr Alexandra. The company took over from his father Piotr (Piotr), and that of his father (Piotr). Peter says that several generations is a positive attribute for management processes. Among the many positives, like a tradition, a stability and an experience, a charity. Also managing the permanent existence of the company “at home”. One manager by management processes (the oldest in the family). Difficulties have risen like the limited financial resources and investment needs. Actually, the possibilities of international scholarship on the world, there are possibilities for the younger generation for the better future of the businesses.

The second is Anna Jewellery Department led by Anne, who took an interest from her dad. Now, Anna with her husband and two employees have operated production, trade and services jewelers. Focuses on conservative models, enriched with stones. She has participated in many international trades. She said, that a family business isn't a specific type of businesses activities. She has looked for the needs of the international market and also Sheis looking for talent among young employees. She was surprised attributes of management family businesses.

Centrum Złotnicze Baranowscy is a business have taken by two generations of Pan Tadeusz Baranowski and Irene. They have employed three people from outside the family - Dealer selers.

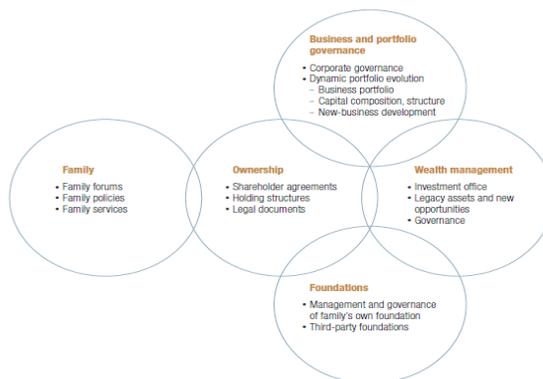
They have plannig to involve their children in the future when they'll grow up. Baranowski said that, the main attribute of the family business is a tradition and ownership and separate interests. Baranowscy have 4 companies in the various industries.

The last family businesses is Atelier Jewelry. It is a family business for 10 years. Relates of several generations by the clothing industry. The business development and the search for a new market were created Atelier Jewellery. The owners are Jola and Kazimierz Poliński. They believe that the family attribute give significant advantage in the management and conduct of the investment business.

To be successful as both the company and the family grow, a family business must meet two intertwined challenges: achieving strong business performance and keeping the family committed to and capable of carrying on as the owner. Dimensions of activity (five) must work well and in synchrony harmonious relations within the family and an understanding of how it should be involved with the business, an ownership structure that provides sufficient capital for growth while allowing the family to control key parts of the business, strong governance of the company and a dynamic business portfolio, professional management of the family's wealth, and charitable foundations to promote family values across generations (Figure1).

I analyzed four companies from the jewelry industry: Pracownia Jubilerska Stankiewicz Piotr, Zakład Jubilerski Anna Modna, Centrum Złotnicze Baranowscy, Zakład Jubilerski Atelier. The form of data collection - interviews direct to 2013. Presented some of the results of research. Verification success factors like success attributes of family taken the five factors:

Figure 1. Dimension for success family firms



Source: Caspar C, Dias A, Elstrodt H., *The five attributes of enduring family businesses*, Mc Kinsey Quarterly, January 2010, p. 3-5.

Large family businesses that survive for many generations make sure to permeate their ethos of ownership with a strong sense of purpose. Over decades, they develop oral and written agreements that address issues such as the composition and election of the company's board, the key board decisions that require a consensus or a qualified majority, the appointment of the CEO, the conditions in which family members can or can't work in their business, and some of the boundaries for corporate and financial strategy [Chrisman J.J., et al., 2010, pp. 1043-1058]. The continual development and interpretation of these agreements, and the governance decisions guided by them, may generations a sense of pride in the company's contribution to society. The family office may help organize regular gatherings that offer large families a chance to bond, to teach young members how to be knowledgeable and productive shareholders, and to vote formally or informally on important matters. It can also keep the family happy by providing investment, tax, and even concierge services to its members.

Ownership like maintaining family control or influence while raising fresh capital for the business and satisfying the family's cash needs is an equation that must be addressed [Daily C.M., Dollinger M.J., 1992, pp. 117-136]. It's a major source of potential conflict, particularly in the transition of power from one generation to the next.

In fact, some families decide to shut external investors out of the entire business and to fuel growth by reinvesting most of the profits, which requires good profitability and relatively low dividends. Others decide to bring in private equity as a way to inject capital and introduce a more effective corporate governance culture.

Business and portfolio governance is important dimension for success business enterprise. With clear rules and guidelines concluding, family enterprises can get on with their business strategies [Bartholomeusz S., Tanewski G.A., 2006, pp. 245-267]. Two success factors show up frequently: strong boards and a long-term view coupled with a prudent but dynamic portfolio strategy. Large and durable family businesses tend to have **strong governance**. Members of these families avoid the principal-agent issue by participating actively in the work of company boards, where they monitor performance diligently and draw on deep industry knowledge gained through a long history. Successful family companies usually seek steady long-term growth and performance to avoid risking the family's wealth and control of the business [Carney M., 2005, pp. 249-265]. This approach tends to shield them from the temptation—which has recently brought many corporations to their knees—of pursuing maximum short-term performance at the expense of long-term company health. A longer-term planning horizon and more moderate risk taking serve the interests of debt holders too, so family businesses tend to have not only lower levels of financial leverage but also a lower cost of debt than their corporate peers do (**long-term portfolio view**) [Miller D, et al. 2006, pp.73-80].

Wealth management - beyond the core holdings, families need strong capabilities for managing their wealth, usually held in liquid assets, semiliquid ones (such as investments in hedge funds or private-equity funds), and stakes in other companies. By diversifying risk and providing a source of cash to the family in conjunction with liquidity events, successful wealth management helps preserve harmony [Ireland R.D., et al., 2003, pp. 963-989]. The five key factors that increase the chances of success: a high level of professionalism, with institutionalized processes and procedures; rigorous investment and divestment criteria; strict performance management; a strong risk-management culture, with aggregated risk measurement and monitoring; and thoughtful talent management [Kellermanns F., Eddleston K., 2006, pp. 809-830]. Charity is an important element in keeping families committed to the world business, by providing meaningful jobs for family members who don't work in it and by promoting family values as the generations come and go. Sharing wealth in an act of social responsibility also generates goodwill toward the business. Foundations set up by entrepreneurial families represent a huge share of philanthropic giving around the world [McConaughy, et al., 2001, pp. 31-40].

Final remarks

System approach for family business is very popular in all fields of research. Case studies have referred to four family businesses from the jewellery industry from at least 2 generations. The all companies have development oriented to achieve not only economic profit but also social profit. The behavioral approach to economic factors have taken the individual attributes of their businesses. In my opinion, the companies observe their management attributes but its different ways to competitive advantage. None of the subjects (0%) did not indicate that it operates a charity and didn't promote the social values. However, 75% (3 from 4 businesses) indicated that family attribute is a factor in the business and only one person said that this attribute reduces the growth of its business.

Table 1. Attributes of enduring family businesses - case study for five jewelers

Name of family business	Attributes of enduring family businesses									
	Family		Ownership		Business and portfolio governance		Wealth management		Foundations	
	Strong attribute	Weak attribute	Strong attribute	Weak attribute	Strong attribute	Weak attribute	Strong attribute	Weak attribute	Strong attribute	Weak attribute
(1)Pracownia Jubilerska Stankiewicz Piotr	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	-	+

(2) Zakład Jubilerski Anna Modna	-	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	+
(3) Cen- trum Złotnicze Ba- ranowscy	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	-	+
(4) Zakład Jubilerski Atelier	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	-	+
Total:	3	1	2	2	1	3	1	3	0	1
Percent- age:	75	25	50	50	25	75	25	75	0	100

Source: Own researches

+ existent attribute in family business

- non existent attribute in family business

Ownership attribute is indicated by the two businesses like strong management attribute, which is a competitive advantage, and by 2 family businesses like the weakness attribute of the jewellery development.

Business and portfolio governance in the family businesses is the attribute of management development of 3 from 4 businesses). At the same time it has limited the management processes in a family entity.

Wealth management – limited the processes associated with risk management in the family businesses. Despite the talent management, isn't enough diversified the business risk. Hence, as much as 75% (3 from 4 businesses) indicates this attribute gives the weak effects of management.

Table 1. The impact of attributes on the processes of management and growth opportunities (investment) in the family businesses in the opinions of entrepreneurs

	Attributes of enduring family businesses									
	Family		Ownership		Business and portfolio governance		Wealth management		Foundations	
	Management	Investment	Management	Investment	Management	Investment	Management	Investment	Management	Investment
(1)	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	-
(2)	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	-
(3)	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	-
(4)	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	-

Source: Own research.

(1) Pracownia Jubilerska Stankiewicz Piotr; (2) Zakład Jubilerski Anna Modna; (3) Centrum Złotnicze Baranowscy; (4) Zakład Jubilerski Atelier

Entrepreneurs - business owners taken different ways to the impact of the analyzed attributes for management and investment. Entrepreneurs indicate that the following attributes are the most important for management and development in family businesses: family, ownership i wealth management. In the opinion of entrepreneurs any attributes haven't got the impact for investments. Without the wealth management, - the most important attribute of enduring family businesses.

Whereas the first statement specifies the process of intentionality among family members and the second specifies the vehicle by which intentions might be realized, the final statement closes the loop by providing a specific feedback mechanism between performance and intentionality.

I argued that with some extensions it can be made applicable to all family firms. Furthermore, I attempted to show that by integrating the concepts of intentionality, vision, behavior, and familiness, there appears to be an opportunity to develop a theory of the family firm from these beginnings.

Summary

According to the Foundation Family Businesses, until 60 percent businesses with 2.2 million active Polish businesses are the family businesses. They have produced 67 percent GDP. Some of them, especially those at the beginning of the 90s the last century.

Every case studies of family businesses indicate that the attributes of the family isn't always indicated like important in the processes of governance. However, the jewelry businesses are the specific types of business activity, The most part of them there are family businesses. The jewelry industries need valuable materials and , the financial cost for the start business activities.

In summary, this paper contributes to the understanding of the attributes of enduring intercultural family businesses into the discussion about family businesses performance and family firm heterogeneity. For intercultural managerial practice, our findings highlight the special role of family firms as well as the positive performance impact achieved by having an organization with a strong orientation to intercultural family attributes.

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Tax risks sources and consequences as a part of intercultural management at family companies

Abstract: One of the factors determining competitiveness of the companies is an appropriate environment for running a business. Such an environment is a tax system in which companies functioning. On the one hand, it creates many possibilities of tax optimization but on the other hand exposes to a tax risk. An analysis of risk sources and effects of exhibition to tax risk was carried out in this article in the context of intercultural management. Research was conducted using 4 case studies approach and focus group interview method to develop preposition. The purpose of this study was to indicate the tax strategies that are possible to apply in family business, which will cause limitation of tax risk, as well as minimization of tax burdens.

Key words: tax risk, family business, tax consequences, tax service, intercultural management

Introduction

Development of family business encounter many challenges to deal with, such as business financing, management of family finances, or adjustment to tax environment. The last one is especially important, mainly due to the changeability, high degree of complexity and huge consequences resulting from the lack of compliance.

Research on family financial management behaviour evolved in last 30 years. There is growing interest in the issue of how families manage their economic and financial resources [Gunay, Boylu, Bener 2013, pp. 1-35]. Tax risk is particularly important in the family business because there is an emphasis on tax security. Whereas, there are no studies analysing this problem in this context.

It was focused in this study on the presentation of tax risk as an element of family business' management environment. The main goal was to examine the sources of tax risk, the way of management of this risk and consequence of the lack of it.

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There was an attempt to indicate what actions should be taken by the companies in the aspect of tax management, in order to minimize this risk. First of all, research methodology was presented and sample characterized. Then, sources of tax risk and way of its management in the researched companies were presented. Consequences of lack of tax risk were analysed in the last chapter.

Research method and sample characteristic

The growing complexity of family businesses together with concomitant problems require adjustments in methodology to describe and interpret them correctly. This article presents how the quality method based on case studies was applied to provide a thorough description of the process and show the cause-effect sequence [Ruane 2005, pp. 76-77]. The study used the focus group interview method (FGI) in extended groups between 4 and 6 members (managers, family members, decision makers in tax related issues) and the qualitative case study method suggested for family business research by Aranda, Molotla and Nieto [2012, pp. 125-139].

The family businesses which were selected for the purpose of this study were run by at least two generations or by siblings. We define family business follow Jennings, Breitzkreuz and James [2013, pp. 472-489] as company controlled primarily by the family in which at least two family members are employed. Family refers to two or more individuals related by blood, adoption, marriage or marital-like relationship. Given the specific information revealed in this article and the author's commitment to confidentiality, the business units were coded and letter-marked A,B,C,D. All of the businesses have at least 15 years of market experience, are situated in urban areas, have the status of a small or medium size business, and are VAT payers. The first company, coded A is a manufacturer of custom made furniture, which, in addition, provides design and assembly services in Poland and other European Union countries. It is a three-generation family business. The B company is a nationwide manufacturer of clothing and accessories employing three generations. C is a sugar confectionery producer with extended chain of retail outlets in Poland, which employs two generations (father, mother, two daughters). D is a distributor of IT equipment and electronic goods, which also provides services. Launched and managed by two brothers, at its start it received financial support from the father.

Table 1. Family business sample characteristics (N=4, year 2012)

Characteristics	Company code			
	A	B	C	D
Number of persons employed	40	186	27	15
Turnover	5 mln EUR	9 mln EUR	2 mln EUR	3 mln EUR
Business activity type	Manufacture Service	manufacture	manufacture	trade service
Law form	Limited liability partnership	Limited liability partnership	Sole-trader	General partner- ship
Income tax type	CIT	CIT	PIT	PIT
VAT payer	Yes	yes	Yes	Yes
Family owner- ship	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: own research.

Three of the companies run manufacturing business (as a leading one), and one on trade-service activity (table 1). In their legal form, two represented limited liability partnership, one sole-trader, and one general partnership. A and B were Corporate Income Tax payers (CIT), which was imposed by their organizational structure, while C and D were Personal Income Tax payers (PIT). All of them was family members controlled in 100%.

Understanding what influences tax risk at business behavior in the context of intercultural management

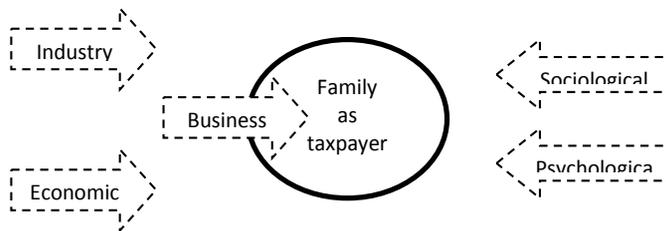
Financial performance and risk-taking proclivity affect company's goal setting and future performance expectations, especially in the context of the family business. Drawing from the behavioural theory of the company, it was argued that owners-managers of family companies upgrade their future performance expectations [Mahto, Khanin 2014, pp. 35]. Family companies may exhibit heterogeneity in their risk orientation so that greater tax risk taking will be positively associated with future performance expectations [Czemieli-Grzybowska 2013, s. 12].

System of public burdens forces the necessity of bearing expenses and adjustment to the external environment (*tax compliance*). It exposes companies for tax risk. A special type of business risk is connected with both the occurrence of specific sanctions and non-optimal management of expenses. The nature of tax risk is the lack of certainty about tax consequences of already realized, current or future economic operations [Poszwa 2007, p. 11]. Elements, which affect the tax risk from the point of view of entrepreneur, can be divided into few groups. Tax risk is usually identified with macroeconomic risk, risk of entrepreneur/taxpayer connected with change of amounts of taxes, choice of form of taxation, also risk of tax ex-

tent, tax construction, formal and material aspects [Raskolnikov 2008, pp. 154-170, Mozydlowski 2012, pp. 193-203]. Referring to the enumerated indicators of tax risk, its potential sources can be indicated. Furman [2012, p. 212] classifies sources of tax risk as external and internal sources. Entrepreneurs have practically no influence on external sources. But through proper tax risk management, they can have influence on internal factors. Stability of tax law favours the minimization of external risk but changeability makes running business more difficult and does not encourage to invest and develop. Degree of law complexity increase exhibition for tax risk, what often exposes companies to the risk of different or incorrect interpretation.

Analyzing the needs identified as the most important by the companies, it was found those related to profitability and costs were the most acute, as well as those related with production processes and consolidation of commercial networks [Bednarek, Buczacki, Guzmán, 2014, pp. 99]. Different factors that go together have influence the attitudes and behaviors of small businesses. Webley and Paul [2004, pp. 65] offer a model for those factors. The model allows to categorize the factors in a consistent manner and sufficiently robust to stand up to applied and practical application in a tax administration environment. This model shown in figure 1 is an approach based on the understanding of the business and the context within which it operates, as an aid to understanding the behavioral motivation towards taxation compliance.

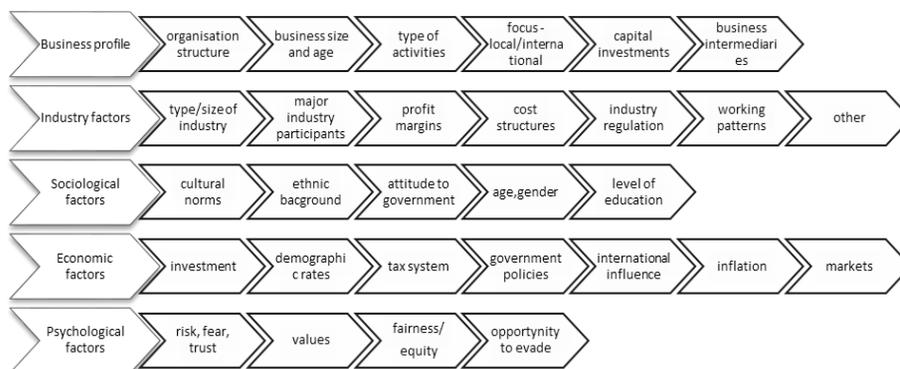
Figure 1. The model of business environment influence factors



Source: OECD 2004, p. 39.

The model represents 5 categories of different views of taxpaying entity. It offer a means to determine behavioral drivers of compliance treatment strategies. There is not easy to answer to what influences taxpayer behaviour. Research undertaken by Braithwaite [2002, pp. 15-30] suggests that the factors identified cause business taxpayers to adopt sets of values, beliefs and attitudes that can be described as *motivational postures*. These postures characterize the way company relates to a revenue authority and the tax system it administers. Understanding the factors that drive specific compliance behaviour is essential to guide the selection of appropriate treatment strategies.

Figure 2. Tax risk among total factors of business risk influencing the compliance behaviour of business



Source: OECD 2004.

As it is shown at the figure 2, external tax risk which is created by tax system is an economic factor that have impact on family-owned business. But tax risk is generated also internally at company. To discover which external and internal factors have impact on family businesses we ask some questions about to our respondents. Results are shown in the table 2.

Table 2. Sources of tax risk at companies

External	Company code	Factor	Internal	Company code	Factor
Un unstable tax law	A,B,C,D	Tax system	Internal procedures	B,C	Organisational structure
Country level tax policy	B,C,D	Tax system	Tax knowledge and awareness	D	Business size and age
Changeable tax regulations' interpretations	A,B,C,D	Tax system	Taxation form choice	D	Type of activities
Market conditions	A,B,C,D	Tax system	IT tools	C,D	Business intermediaries
			Professional tax optimization	B,C,D	All business

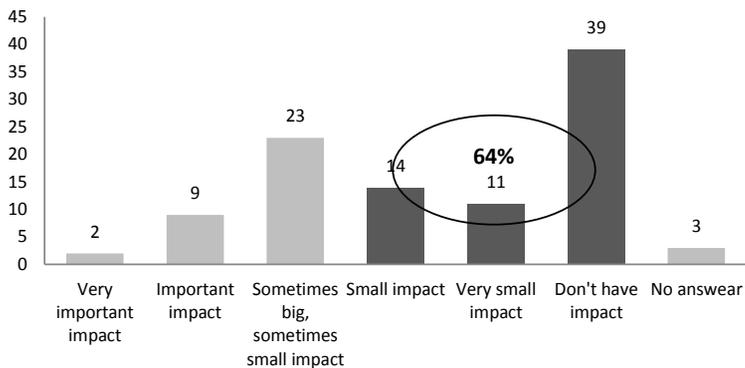
Source: own research.

The external risk in changeable interpretation of regulations, particularly VAT and social insurances, in the instability of regulations and in changes of market conditions. As an internal source of risk are specified the lack of (companies B, C and D) or defective internal tax procedures (B, C) and lack of professional tax optimization of concluded transactions and issues connected with succession (compa-

nies B, C and D). Company D finds sources of risk in the form of taxation, because together with the growth of company also increases the degree of complexity and accuracy of the record. It exposes a company to a risk connected with the possibility of making accounting and financial errors. Deficiency of knowledge concerning taxes, necessity of trainings and constant education, mainly among employees of the company were also noticed in this company. Deficiency of knowledge, or ignorance of the regulations among people who manage company is the main factor exhibiting family companies to a tax risk.

Style of management and reluctance of the owners of companies to employ on key position employees outside their families are also sources of tax risk. In Poland, according to the data of PARP [2008, pp. 56]. As many as 64% employees of family companies do not take part in making decisions or their participation is insignificant (figure 3).

Figure 3. The impact of non-family employees on decision making at the company (%)



Source: PARP 2008.

Table 3 shows, that only company B employs full-time accountants (3 persons) and uses the services of tax counsellor. Company A commissioned to the accounting office, all accounting and personnel obligations, but does not use the legal service and tax counselling. All accounting obligations in the company C are made by the owner's wife, and personnel issues by her daughter. Issues connected with concluding business agreements are commissioned to the legal office. Company does not use the services of tax counselling. Both accountancy and personnel are conducted by the owner's wife in the company D. Decisions concerning tax optimization and planning are also made by her.

Table 3. Tax service providers at family business and risk rating

Service	Company code							
	A	Risk rating	B	Risk rating	C	Risk rating	D	Risk rating
Accounting	Tax office	Low	Employed accountant	Low/moderate	Owner's wife	Significant	Owner's wife	Significant
Payroll	Tax office	Low	Employed accountant	Low/moderate	Owner's daughter	Significant	Owner's wife	Significant
Law counselling	-		-		Law office	Low	-	
Tax counselling	-		Professional tax advisor	Low	-		Owner's wife	High

Risk rating base on OECD method [2004, p. 29]: *severe* – other position, *high* – executive position, *significant* – senior position, *moderate* – middle position, *low* – routine position.

Source: own research.

Researched entrepreneurs confirm that small entrepreneurs rather do not use the services of law companies or tax counselling in the tax aspect of preparing trade contracts. The main reason are costs of these services. Among the companies being researched (A, B, C, D), tax and personnel activities were made by the very owners (or family members). Together with the growth of number of trade partners, concluded transactions and employment, companies A and B use the services of specialists. Small companies usually do not hire employees, who apart from filling out tax documentation would analyse tax changes or examine concluded agreements from the tax point of view. Many entrepreneurs are not aware of the consequences of made and detected mistakes in tax settlements.

Ideal patterns of tax risk minimization would be a system of management that inform who in the organization is responsible for dealing with the risk (table 3). This involve close and detailed connection with government representatives and perhaps other agencies as well. As the severity of the compliance risk exposure decreases the organizational level at which the risk can be appropriately managed and reduced. Risk assessment and prioritization will be repeated at several levels of the organization. If the organization's strategic risks have been identified it will allow further refine the broad strategic risks and to determine priority areas. Once these decisions and priorities have been assigned, operational line management can begin the process of identifying specific cases from within their area of influence for further action. The extent of the risk being managed is progressively reduced and managed at an appropriate level within the organization.

Tax risk consequences for the management at family businesses

There is a clear division into employees from the family and those who are outside. Owner has greater trust in family members, and they are better motivated, flexible and able to sacrifice in the aim a company. In company D, almost all of the key positions are occupied by the family members. On the other hand, it makes access to specialized employees more difficult and make strategy of this company dependent on the family. Employing family members on the executive positions is understandable and not always a bad choice. It sometimes happens that belonging to the family or loyalty will compensate the lack of knowledge and experience. However, it should be remembered that the tax risk is significantly reduced with appropriate optimization in proper execution, based on the knowledge, and not only blood ties.

Tax risk can also be considered from the point of view of legal and business effect of tax compliance for the entrepreneur [Poszwa 2007, p. 13]. Effects of difficulties in tax risk management can be: risk of tax surcharge, financial sanction, loss of benefits resulting from tax optimization, risk of loss of reputation, risk of double taxation, risk of loss of financial liquidity, or decrease of profitability and competitiveness. Therefore, such consequences are preceded with initial phase, mainly demand of explanation or tax control. An issue of frequency and scope of these events was discussed during interview. In table 4 there are information about problems connected with the controls in a company, their scope and effects in a form of tax and penal and fiscal proceedings.

Table 4. Official tax procedures in last 5 years of business activity (2008-2012)

<i>Type of procedure</i>	<i>Company code</i>			
	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>D</i>
Number of controls	14	1	6	17
Scopes of control (number)	VAT (4)	Labour law (1)	VAT (5) cross-check (1)	PIT (1) VAT (16)
Number of tax proceedings	0	0	1	1
Number of penal and fiscal proceedings	0	0	0	0
<i>Type of risk</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>D</i>
Registration	+	-	+	+
Filing	-	-	+	+
Reporting	-	-	+	+
Payment	+	+	+	+

+ exposure for risk took place, - exposure for risk didn't take place

Source: own research.

Effects of risk management lackness can be severe for the family companies. High risk, when it comes to taxes, brings about VAT because this a tax that is most often verified. Companies A and D were controlled every time because there was a return of VAT to the bank account. For that reason, company C was controlled five times. There were controls in the companies B and C by way of labour law and cross-check. As a result of checking activities, tax proceedings in the companies C and D were instituted, and then discontinued. None of these companies had a penal and fiscal proceedings. During an interview with the owner of company D, it was noticed that there was once in the history of activity (2005), a bank account attachment by way of tax arrears. Each company, in the researched period was three times summoned to Tax Office in order to explain an issue or a problem. During interviews it was noticed that sometimes companies are exposure on risk during different activities undertaking by business owners. Company A was exposed to risk during registration and also have some troubles with tax payments (also B). Companies C and D was exposed during registration, filing forms, reporting and payment.

Shaping internal factors of tax risk lies on entrepreneur who should take actions leading to reduction of this factor of business environment. It can be done by formulation of assumptions of tax strategy, understood as actions taken which enable tax optimization [Wilimowska, Urbańska 2009, p. 144]. It would be profitable if strategy was implemented in a moment of beginning of activity, when it concerns a form of taxation, and then in the period of activity [Walczak 2009, p. 241, Walicka 2014, p. 371-382]. Important issue is also to employ specialists, or to use the services of specialists. Small companies are usually able to settle themselves (owner or a family keep records). However, the time and necessity of compliance often makes long-term planning of tax strategies leading towards risk minimization and amount of tax obligation impossible. That is why the entrepreneur should take into consideration a moment, when should make a decision of using the services of professional counselling, or about employing qualified employee.

Optimal combination of elements presented in table 5 should be one of the areas of company's strategic decisions. Because to a large extent, it decides about financial condition and even market position. However, it requires modification of style of family business management and appropriate qualifications of the employees that make decisions. Employing family members on executive positions is understandable and is not always a bad solution. It often leads to a situation when risk management boils down only to informal discussion among family members. Incompetent application of tax optimization can expose a company to a huge risk, and in consequence even to bankruptcy.

Table 5. Procedures and strategies of action in management of tax risk in family company

INTERNAL RISK MANAGEMENT	Procedures concerning:	Strategies concerning:		
	Organizational and legal form	Legal personality	Capital groups	Structures of employment
	Choice of the place of activity	Tax heavens		
	Costs	Strategies of disbursements' valuation	Depreciation	High costs
	Preferences and tax exemptions	Donation	Activity B+R	CBR status
	Choice of the subject of activity	Activity profile change	Change of the scope of activity	
	Company's economy	Political strategies		

Source: own research.

Conclusion

It should be noted that above legal consequences of the lack of tax management can have business consequences. In the company D, it was stated that due to the frequent controls, family's reputation decreased in the eyes of employees. In the company C, it was stated that tax proceedings caused conflicts in the company and threatened its image. In the researched companies, tax risk did not cause too big disturbances in the running of a business. Possible worse scenarios could be the loss of financial liquidity (e.g. through bank account attachment by the Tax Office) or loss of property as a result of enforcement, and in consequence lead to bankruptcy.

Violation of the rules can have serious financial consequences. It does not matter whether managed business will do it consciously or not. The consequences of under-reporting obligations or improper tax strategy could affect the competitive position of the company, undermining trust in the family.

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Eco-design as a strategic way to competitiveness in global markets for furniture family-owned MSMEs

Abstract: The furniture industry is a traditional Polish industry branch where the vast majority of firms are exactly MSMEs. Moreover the majority of them are family firms¹. Their owners and managers with limited marketing budgets, more than large one, need a clear set of guidelines to compete in the global market. Environmental impacts for furniture are minor during use, and more associated with production and disposal. This paper demonstrates that using a method of eco-design and implementing eco-innovation within the framework of a new product strategy can be successful, even though resources are limited. For the purpose of present the possible opportunities and barriers of eco-design implementation the literature study was conducted. According to the results growing concern about the environmental effects derived from furniture production and products use as well as on how they are disposed of at the end of their life cycle may in some degree determine the company market position. To compete successfully on global markets furniture family-owned MSMEs should take intent steps, and eco-trends indicate not only the most popular, but also desired by consumers direction.

Key words: furniture, eco-design strategies, review, family business, MSMEs

¹ A family enterprise is each business from the MSME sector, regardless of the legal form, registered and operating in Poland, in which: at least two family members working together, at least one family member has a considerable impact on managing the enterprise, family members have a significant share in the enterprise [PAED 2009, p. 48].

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Introduction

MSMEs are increasingly seen as an important focus for the attention of policy-makers. In Europe when trade barriers fell, companies, especially from MSMEs² sector, must be much more competitive to survive [WBCSD 2006, p. 35]. The furniture industry is a traditional Polish industry branch where the vast majority of firms are exactly MSMEs and which globally represent a relatively great proportion of the national trade and employment. In fact, the most of them are family firms employing frequently from two to nine people. The furniture manufacturing is considered as a typical low-tech affair according the European Furniture Manufacturers Federation, where innovation is fundamentally based on adoption more than invention. The shortage of resources in the companies to develop radical innovations, caused that they do not have a way to protect them since counterfeiting is so easy [Hoffman et al. 1998, p. 39; Otero-Neira et al. 2009, pp. 220].

Furniture manufactured in Poland for decades contribute to ongoing development that industry branch. Therefore, Poland is now one of the world's top furniture manufacturers [Grzegorzewska E., 2013, p. 308]. To keep competitive position on the market by Polish furniture, manufacturers have to care about continual development of their companies. However improvements, that appear most often, i.e. made only on a production level (technological or process innovation), could be not sufficient. It becomes necessary to initiate implementation of enhancement in an earlier stage, it means in the new (or innovative) product development process [Grzegorzewska E. and Olkowicz M., 2013, p. 299]. It is known that there are several factors that significantly determines the way of its realization, e.g. a sector of the economy, an industry type, specificity and nature of production, strategies and a company size [Olkowicz M. and Szymanowski W., 2012, pp. 118–122]. Nevertheless the process of developing a new product does not depend so much on the level of technological complexity of the implemented product as on the quality of management and the competence of the staff who supervise the development process [Lindman et al. 2008, p. 52]. So regardless of the company size and the type of an industry (low- or high-tech) in order to improve the efficiency of the new product development process and obtain (or keep) market position, each enterprise requires an approach which enable it to find some competitive advantages. As claim Lassen et al. [2008, p. 93], furniture MSME owners and managers with limited marketing budgets, more than large one, need a clear set of guidelines to compete in the global market, and they must overcome their reluctance to allocate resources to leveraging their brands. This paper demonstrates that using a method of eco-design and implementing eco-innovation within the framework of a new product strategy can be successful, even though resources are limited. For the purpose of present the possible opportunities and barriers of eco-design implementation the literature study

² "MSME" is defined as a firm with less than 250 employees.

was conducted. Deeper knowledge of the environmental impacts of the materials and processes used in the furniture industry, as well as awareness of the customers' criteria for ecological furniture enable companies to 'green' their products and gain win recognition on the market [Parikka-Alhola K. 2008, p. 473]. This is requirement of the present and near future because consumers are becoming increasingly conscious about the products they purchase and manufacturers and retail chains cannot ignore this [Çinar H. 2005, p. 27].

Innovativeness in family-owned MSMEs

A successful company is conditioned not only by the organization capacity to determine market needs. The firm must also find the best way of satisfying customers through competitively viable offers. Innovation is perhaps the tool to achieve such offers [Otero-Neira et al. 2009, pp. 216–217].

Innovation is one of the most important strategies of competition, both for small and large firms. It is often argued that MSMEs innovate in specific ways, different from the innovation process in large firms. Regarding innovative performance, the heterogeneity is caused by a mix of factors. The most important are: the technological level (high-tech firms are usually more active in product innovation), the market relations (innovator attracts customers attention) and the strategies of competition (competition based on improved quality and new functions rather than reducing prices) [Kaufmann A. and Tödting F. 2002, p. 147]. The factors affecting the different stages of the innovation process can play a significant role through their effect on the economic performance of a sector and its interactions to the related business environment [Trigkas, et al. 2012, p. 155]. In many cases in MSMEs sector, especially in family businesses, the barrier is more of a management than a technical (or financial) problem. Environmental problems tend to be generated by a lack of good management in all areas, so such problems cannot be fixed by a technical change here or there [Carlson et al. 2006, p. 531; WBCSD 2006, p. 36]. Kaufmann and Tödting [2002, p. 157] also noticed that human resources is important factor for small firms on the way to innovations. In their opinion they used more intensively manpower than large firms, what indicates the need of engagement more adequately qualified people. Surprisingly, bottlenecks regarding human resources — lack of qualified personnel, technical knowhow, and time — were rarely indicated by the firms. In Poland the case concerns a large group of enterprises because family businesses constitute 36% of MSME. It can be estimated that family enterprises belonging to the MSME sector produce at least 10,4% of total Polish GDP (more than PLN 121 billion). Moreover family enterprises in Poland employ circa 1 million 300 thousand persons, which constitutes about 21% of the total number of employees in MSME sector [PAED 2009, p. 21].

Sustained innovativeness depends on each firm's set of dynamic capabilities, which helps it integrate, build, and reconfigure internal and external competencies to address rapidly changing environments by activating, copying, transferring, synthesizing, reconfiguring, and redeploying different skills and resources [Branzei and Vertinsky, I. 2006, p. 77]. To compete successfully on global markets, MSMEs must build strong market positions. Brand differentiation can help firms to increase their market power and prices in the long run if earlier they create the necessary conditions, i.e. identify the brand essence, focus on the right target group and keep all communication and market activities consistent and continuous [Lassen et al. 2008, pp. 102–104]. Choosing eco-design as the brand essence could be successful for MSMEs.

Eco-design strategies

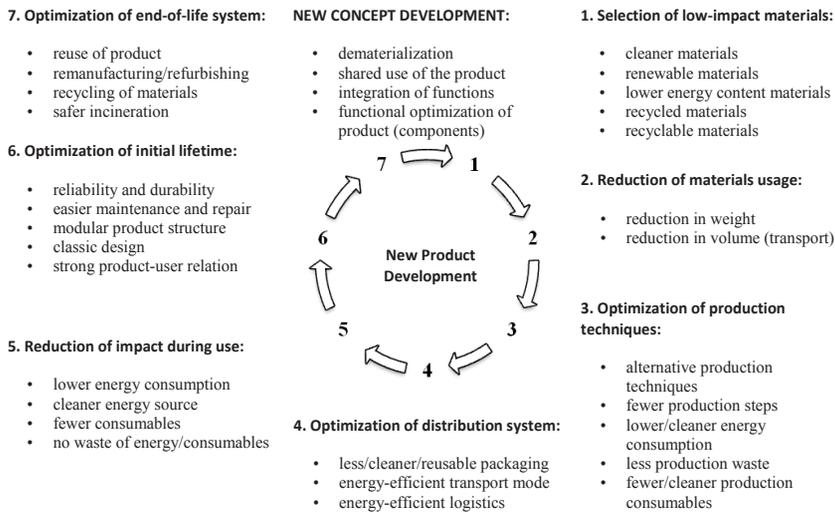
The widespread globalization of goods and services is prompting companies in industrialized nations to adopt innovation and creativity strategies to ensure their growth. **Eco-design, therefore, can be seen as a response to this situation, combining creativity, innovation and environmental responsibility** [Plouffe et al. 2011, p. 573].

Multiple meanings of the term eco-design can be found in the literature. For example, eco-design as an activity which focuses on the integration of environmental considerations into product development, and that eco-design tools ought to be made available to designers during the product development process [Bovea and Pérez-Belis, 2012, p. 61]. By 'eco-design' also is meant the systematic and consistent strife for improving the environmental profile of product(s) in all stages of the product life cycle, including proper recycling and disposal [van Hemel and Cramer 2002, p. 440]. Moreover sometimes eco-design is referred as Design for Environment (DfE), that is an umbrella term describing techniques used to incorporate an environmental component into products and services before they enter the production phase [Çinar H. 2005, p. 28]. That term is connected with another – 'eco-efficiency', which is seen both as a concept and as a tool where the basic idea is to produce more with less impact on nature, measured as reduced emissions or reduced raw material consumption, or both [Michelsen and Magerholm Fet 2010, p. 561]. Other the most quoted definitions is from World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) that defines eco-efficiency as 'the delivery of competitively priced goods and services that satisfy human needs and bring quality of life, while progressively reducing ecological impact and resource intensity throughout the life cycle, to a level at least in line with the Earth's estimated carrying capacity'.

In product development, the complexity of the decision process involving all environmental aspects very often creates an unbridgeable gap for designers. Every product damages the environment to some extent. Therefore, selection of materials,

tools, technologies, and also an approach to design and manufacturing processes is a crucial factor in being environmentally friendly [Çinar H. 2005, p. 28]. Product development strategies capture the intensity of firms' innovation efforts within a technological domain, whereas process development strategies typically capture the intensity of innovation efforts aimed at increasing the efficiency and (or) the effectiveness of internal production processes [Branzei and Vertinsky 2006, p. 82]. There is a possibility on the phase of a new product development to introduce some factors oriented on improving the environmental profile of the product to both types of the strategy. They are so-called eco-design principles, possible solutions to improve the environmental profile of a product system, taking all the stages of its life cycle into consideration [van Hemel and Cramer 2002, p. 440]. Environmental factors should be taken into account at the earliest possible stage of product development and design [Çinar H. 2005, p. 27]. These eco-design principles, illustrated in Figure 1, are a priori clustered into eight eco-design strategies which arise as environmental answers to the environmental impacts detected in the previous Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) study (quantitative assessment) and from the eco-briefing (qualitative assessment) [González-García et al. 2012, p. 322].

Figure 1. The eco-design strategy wheel

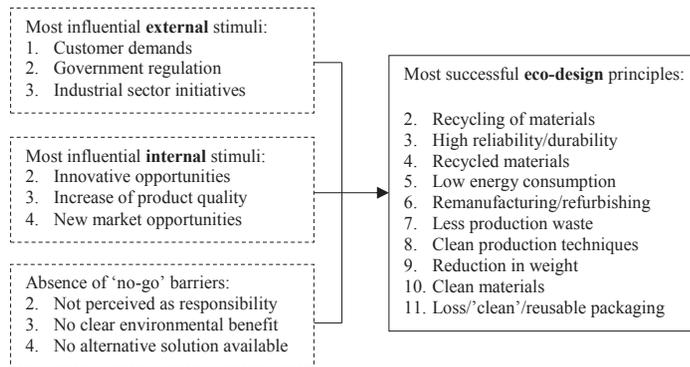


Source: Hemel and Cramer 2002, p. 441.

Hemel and Cramer [2002, p. 439] concluded that an eco-design improvement option only stands a chance, if it is supported by stimuli other than the expected environmental benefit alone. Those eco-design improvement options were most successful that were supported by several strong internal and external stimuli, and

not blocked by any no-go barriers. The most influential internal stimuli were the opportunities for innovation, the expected increase of product quality and the potential market opportunities. The research revealed quite clearly that the most influential external stimuli for eco-design are ‘Customer demands’, ‘Governmental legislation’ and ‘Industrial sector initiatives’. **Nevertheless there were also the following barriers:** ‘No clear environmental benefit’; ‘Not perceived as responsibility’ and ‘No alternative solution is available’ (Figure 2).

Figure 2. The most influential stimuli and the most successful eco-design principles



Source: Hemel and Cramer 2002, p. 453.

According to WBCSD [2006, p. 35, 65] in a global context eco-efficiency is integral to leading firms' business strategies, so if MSMEs want to compete on international markets, they should implement eco-approach in companies, especially as products designed to ecological design rules:

- can be cheaper to produce and use;
- can be smaller and simpler in their design;
- include a smaller variety of materials and are easier to disassemble for recycling;
- often they encompass higher functionality, better serviceability and easier upgradeability;
- can provide a higher value for their users, while the environmental influence related to their use is minimized.

After Plouffe et al. [2011, p. 578] it appears that MSMEs have a higher success rate of eco-designed products than large corporations, and also that the B2B sector is more sensitive to eco-designed products. Deutz et al. [2013, p. 124] indicate large companies appear to be more likely to include the environment principles at all stages of the design process than MSMEs. However, the difference is not statistically significant either by company size or whether they are consumer-interfacing.

On the other hand large companies are significantly more likely than MSMEs to consider energy consumption in production, waste and pollution.

Eco-design in MSME furniture industry

In Polish furniture sector, micro-enterprises are the majority invariably for several years. The share of micro-firms remains permanently at the level of more than 90%. That group of the furniture sector comprises mainly small family businesses with modest production scale. However number of such entities steadily decreases from 1998 for the benefit of medium and large enterprises. As a result, their participation in the production of the entire furniture industry is marginal and additionally regularly falling - from 21% in 1995 to 9% in 2009 [BAA Polska 2011, pp. 14, 25]. That statistics indicates the need of finding the way of support for the family firms in the furniture industry.

Additionally the environmental awareness within the furniture industry has gradually increased during the last decade. The furniture manufacturers are exposed to an increasing demand for environmental information on the products, in particular from public purchasers. However, the MSMEs furniture manufacturers have faced some problems e.g. they do not have access to adequate tools and knowledge and resources to perform reliable environmental assessments [Michelsen and Magerholm Fet 2010, p. 563]. Although according to van Hamel and Cramer [2002, p. 453] for MSMEs even more important than technical problems, are economical and social factors like the acceptance of environmentally improved products in the market, and the way in which the MSMEs studied perceive the market perspectives of these products.

The furniture industry is basically an assembling industry, which employs different raw materials (not only wood but also fiber- and chipboards, metals, plastics, glass and leather) to manufacture different products. At the present time, the European furniture industry has a strong image worldwide thanks to its high level of quality, not only at a technical level, but also aesthetical. However, there is a growing concern about the environmental effects derived from goods production and use as well as on how they are disposed of at the end of their life cycle [González-García et al. 2012, p. 318].

Environmental impacts are quite limited for furniture during use but more associated with production and disposal. The requirements and criteria for furniture purchasing should be targeted to those environmental aspects that have the most influence and could, through eco-design, lead to the greatest environmental benefits [Parikka-Alhola K. 2008, p. 472]. Till now for the wood furniture industry, efforts have been focused on the study of different environmental properties of wood-based panels and their various finishes: volatile organic compounds (VOCs) in particleboard with diverse coverings; industrial surface coatings, including wood

furniture and fixtures emission inventory development; emission factors for particleboard and medium density fiberboard; low speed impact on polyethylene and aramidic FRP laminates; ballistic simulation of impact on composite laminates; the use of manufacturing technologies of wood-based materials and coatings, and the mechanics and structure of wood-based composite materials. Other studies investigated formaldehyde emission from various wood composites such as the reduction of formaldehyde emission from plywood and particleboard made from various species based on manufacturing parameters [Çinar H. 2005, pp. 27–28; Parikka-Alhola K. 2008, p. 475].

The eco-design strategies identified by van Hemel and Cramer [2002] are not specific to furniture but more general in principle, applicable to any product as Parikka-Alhola [2008, p. 476] claims. Although there is no legislative pressure in the furniture sector, many manufacturers are becoming more aware of their responsibility to make more environmentally sound furniture. Environmental objectives in purchasing place pressure on designers to integrate environmental criteria into the production processes and the final product. Some of the most important decisions with respect to environmental properties of a new product are taken during the product development [Parikka-Alhola K. 2008, p. 473]. Product designers and procurement managers play a key role in a company. Their influence is not only crucial to product functionality and price. It also has a big effect on the environmental impact of production, product maintenance and disposal [Çinar H. 2005, p. 27; WBCSD 2006, p. 65]. Unfortunately often environmental considerations are competing with design criteria such as cost and need therefore to be established as a higher order consideration. Although what can be accomplished will depend on budget, viewing the environment as a design criterion limits rather than expands the possibilities considered. The utilization of a good design process seems fundamental [Bovea and Pérez-Belis, 2012, p. 61–70; Deutz et al. 2013, p. 127]. Nevertheless Parikka-Alhola [2008, p. 476] recognized several objectives for environmentally sound furniture:

- long lifetime (e.g. durability, adaptability, compatibility, timeless design, easy assembly and dismantling, easy caring and repairing, availability of spare parts and repair services);
- ecological profile of materials (e.g. lower chemical content, use of non-toxic substances, sustainable forestry, eco-labeled textiles, use of recycled material);
- environmentally sound packaging (e.g. reusable packages, packaging service system);
- recyclability (e.g. easy dismantling, recyclable materials, recyclable parts);
- environmentally sound production processes (e.g. low energy consumption, low production emissions and amount of chemicals).

Nowadays, furniture sector is paying special attention on environmental and innovative concerns due to the aim of distinguishing its products from other

competitors as well as its entrance into the emerging market of green products [González-García et al. 2012, pp. 325]. Therefore on the basis of literature the most possible: requirements, opportunities and barriers for implementation of the eco-design strategy in furniture family-owned MSMEs were presented in Table 1. That will be the starting point for future research in the industry.

Table 1. Circumstances of implementing the eco-design strategy in furniture family-owned MSMEs

ECO-DESIGN IN FURNITURE FAMILY-OWNED MSMEs		
Requirements	Opportunities	Barriers
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • economical and social factors like the acceptance and competitiveness of environmentally sound products on the market • finding alternative solutions for technical problems • use of certified wood from 'sustainable forest' • selection of substances, materials and components, prolongation of product lifetime and creation of products that consume less energy during their lifetime and are recyclable or reusable after the use phase • intension of establishing a competitive advantage from the eco-design • integration of the work and external environment concentrating on ergonomics, security, stability and strength, user friendliness, material characteristics, emissions and ecology • necessity of integration the eco-strategy in the company management system • compatibility the eco-design strategy with other corporate strategies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pressing social needs and consumer demand for environmentally sound products • promotion of sustainable development in the furniture industry • developing an approach to environmental management that takes account of particular cultural needs and capabilities • education and training of society • engagement the community and workers (local community activism) • more training and government assistance • development of low-cost, effective certification systems • new sources of eco-project finance • making the certification process and environmental management systems more widely available • greater access to information • leap-frog technology • cooperation with large companies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • limited finances of MSMEs • macroeconomic policies that favor environmentally unfriendly practices • lack of public procurement • limited regulations enforcement limited environmental infrastructure (e.g. places to dispose of waste) • necessity of adapted the eco-efficiency solutions to local conditions (cultural and economic) • "informality" of many MSMEs (often they don't pay taxes) • not perceived taking care of environment as responsibility • no clear environmental benefit • no alternative solution (e.g. technological) available or too expensive equivalents • lack of materials about an ecological profile • weak access to information and research results • uncertain economic return of an eco-design approach

ECO-DESIGN IN FURNITURE FAMILY-OWNED MSMEs		
Requirements	Opportunities	Barriers
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • specific interpretation of the eco-design strategy by the company and consistent implementation • supporting to close material cycles with reused materials, or not using certain harmful substances, to meet the purchasers' interests • monitoring data about environmental policy, pollution emissions, waste materials from the manufacturing process, materials used (material specification), the waste-handling of materials used in the product, and environmentally classified materials/chemicals • raising concern about the emissions of chemical substances from the material during its utilization • conditions (furniture manufacturing processes, materials and chemicals in the finished products, recycling properties of the products, quality, regulatory and social performance criteria) of certification obtainment from the eco-labels institutions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • MSMEs work with supply chains, neighbor companies • creation environmental improvement and generation information that allow MSMEs to demonstrate improvements to the market (i.e. ISO) • generation home country demand through fostering environmental technologies that anticipate market demands and requirements by industry and government • requirement of improved environmental performance by financing institutions and insurers • fundamental environmental and public health problems • environmental aspects are taken into consideration in the public procurement process (e.g. purchase of office furniture) • taking benefit from other countries' experience • enhance the firm's image and improve relationships with various stakeholders: financial, environmental groups, neighboring communities • foster greater creativity or enhance innovation capability 	

Source: Own studies based on Adamczyk, W. 2004, pp. 63–74; WBCSD [2006, p. 35–36]; Parikka-Alhola K. 2008, p. 482; Plouffe et al. 2011, p. 574–579.

Conclusions

Growing environmental concerns during the last decades, coupled with public pressure and stricter regulations, are changing the way people do business across the world. Results of conducted study indicates that in furniture family-owned

MSMEs there is a set of requirements, opportunities and barriers connected with the eco-design strategy that support this approach or not. Nevertheless the one is inevitable – consumers are becoming increasingly conscious about the products, and some of requirement about the product slowly come into standards. Moreover more and more organizations begin to behave in an environmentally responsible manner. That is the reason why furniture designers or manufacturers also should be aware of the consequence of their work and consider its impact on the environment. Not too far in the future, “green” design might be as expected in project solutions as universal design is today. For Polish furniture family-owned MSMEs it could be the way enabling them to compete on the global markets so it is important to continue this research in the future.

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Socio-organizational mechanisms of institutional exclusion – a challenge for multicultural organizations

Abstract: The article provides theoretical considerations supported by empirical results of own research on the socio-cultural determinants of mobbing/bullying at workplaces, carried out on samples of adults working in different organizations in Poland (2007/8: N = 465; 2010: N = 260). Referring to the selected elements of Berger and Luckman's theory of social construction of reality (1966) as well as certain socio-organizational phenomena such as mobbing, organizational climate, and organizational culture, the author proposes a hypothesis that mobbing can be seen as a kind of socio-organizational sanction applied to culturally different and poorly-socialized employees. The results of own research show that mobbing behaviours are mostly experienced by non-conformist employees who do not support the objectives and organizational procedures and negatively evaluate various factors of organizational climate. Nevertheless, numerous research results [Durniat K., 2009, 2011, Grzesiuk L., 2008, Hoel H., Zapf D., Cooper CL, 2002, Høgh A., and Dofradottir EG, 2002, Einarsen S., Mikkelsen EG, 2003] clearly show that the incidence of mobbing entails a number of negative consequences for both individuals and entire organizations. The presented course of consideration is a voice in the scientific discussion which has a direct impact on practical management – about bullying/mobbing at work as a particular threat to multicultural organizations and a challenge for their managers.

Key words: workplace diversity, organizational culture, organizational climate, cultural diversity, mobbing, secondary socialization, culture fit.

Introduction

In the reality of the 21st-century economy, determined by the phenomenon of globalization – the functioning of individuals in multicultural teams or managing

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international companies has become an ordinary experience of employees of all organizational levels, working in various institutions and enterprises around the world. The universality of this type of experience, so characteristic of the present times, does not diminish its importance or imply that individuals and organizations are always able to cope with the challenges brought about by their multicultural staffs. Today's researchers agree on the fact that human resources management in multinational companies has become a major challenge currently faced by practitioners and theoreticians of management in the 21st century [Stor M., 2006, p. 310]. The problems of managing broad diversity, which requires high degrees of flexibility and adaptability and to promote behavior with high social responsibility [Greenberg, J., Baron RA, 2000] belong to the integral aspects of modern human resources management. The term "diversity management" is quite wide-ranging and includes both visible bio-demographic differences as well as less visible socio-cultural ones [Kandola, R., Fullerton J., 1994, p. 19, Lawthom R., 2003, pp. 418-419]. Nowadays, social diversity is considered an inseparable component of organizational life [Stor M., 2006, p. 310]. Researchers emphasize that diverse human capital brings diverse skills, abilities and knowledge into an organization – a multiplicity and uniqueness of human experience, a plurality of viewpoints, and heterogeneity of cultural patterns and models of organizational behavior. For today's organizations and their managers, such input entails both a tremendous opportunity and a great challenge. Undoubtedly, the pluralism of human capital can contribute to the creation of new, unprecedented ideas and values as well as innovative services and products, thus providing the organization with an opportunity to win a global competitive advantage. The position of strategically important innovativeness, treated as a result of wider processes of organizational learning that includes every member of the organization [Bartlett CA, Ghoshal S., 2002, p. 68] is attainable under the assumption of the high adaptability and flexibility of individuals and the entire organization [Stor M., 2006, p. 311; Schuler RS at all, 2002]. Such characteristics stand in opposition to organizational narrowness, conservatism and dogmatic attitudes. Personnel strategies in international and multicultural organizations should skillfully balance between institutionalization, associated with the priority of standard solutions, and personalization, more focused on meeting the needs and goals of socially diverse employees [Stor M., 2006, p. 317]. What is emphasized today is that the formulation of personnel strategies in international corporations must be accompanied by a pre-determined philosophy of social diversity. The basic premise of this approach is the claim that talents and abilities of value for the organization are distributed evenly among the representatives of all groups: racial, ethnic, or religious; both among healthy and disabled employees, heterosexual and homosexual, men and women [Lawthom R., 2003, p. 419]. An important feature of international human resources management is the increasing importance of cultural factors in solving personnel

problems. Currently, in most countries in Europe, Asia and America, there are regulations and guidelines for actions aimed at preventing any forms of inequality, discrimination, exclusion and mobbing at workplaces [cf. Lawthom R., 2003, p. 418; Labor Code, amended in 2004, Art. 94, § 2]. Nevertheless, the existence of appropriate laws and regulations cannot protect today's organizations and their members from experiencing discrimination and mobbing at work [cf. Durniat K., 2012b, H. Hoel, Einarsen S., 2010]. Moreover, some theoretical concepts [Berger, P., Luckmann, T., 1966] and research results [Durniat K., 2010c, 2010d] allow the thesis that the multi-culture of staff, so common in modern organizations, is a factor increasing employees' chances of experiencing various forms of social ostracism and psychological terror in the workplace. In the following sections of this article, the author will provide theoretical and empirical arguments in support of this hypothesis, anchored in the sociological theory of social construction of reality by Berger and Luckmann [Berger, P., Luckmann, T., 1966], the concept of mobbing [Leymann H, 1990; Durniat K. 2006, 2008] and of organizational climate as defined by Rosenstiel and Bögel [Rosenstiel L., Bögel R., 1992]. Then, the author will briefly present the methodology for measuring mobbing at workplaces (the validated Polish psychometric tool to measure mobbing at workplaces, called the SDM questionnaire [Durniat K., Kulczycka A., 2006; Durniat K., 2007, 2008b]), an organizational climate measurement questionnaire, and selected results of own studies concerning the socio-organizational and organizational-cultural aspects of mobbing within organizations [Durniat K. 2008, 2009, 2010a, 2010b]. The results obtained by the researcher in the studies carried out in Poland supplement the international research results carried out by the world's leading and best-known researchers of mobbing [Leymann H, 1990, 1996, Zapf D., C. Knorz, Kulla M., 1996, Vartia M. 1996].

An outline of the concept of social construction of reality by Berger and Luckmann

In one of the most significant sociological works of the previous century, two German thinkers of the 1950s – Peter L. Berger and Peter Luckmann – substantiated their own thesis that although an institutional world has no ontological status of a being independent of human activities, paradoxically it is experienced by individuals as an objective and autonomous being [P. Berger, T. Luckmann, 1966; Polish transl. 1983]. The researchers explained that people who create an institutional world, enter into a dialectical relationship with their own creation – a world that re-shapes them and returns to their consciousness as an independent and objectified being. This process takes place in two successive and independent phases: through primary socialization and secondary socialization. The former involves the socialization of an individual which takes place early in human life, through the

recognition and internalization of social norms approved by the given environment and culture, and by determining the identity and role of the individual in the surrounding socio-cultural world. Later, in their adolescent and adult life, individuals undergo successive processes of secondary socialization, which involve the internalization of the so-called “institutional sub-worlds”. This process, where individuals enter institutional worlds associated with a variety of professional roles and jobs, is based on their achieving an internal state of identification with the social and professional roles they assume and is associated with learning and adopting the standards of behavior and values appropriate for the organization. Every time an individual enters into the world of another institution implies undergoing another process of secondary socialization. Thus, secondary socialization consists in the acquisition of knowledge related to the roles derived from the division of tasks and the institution’s values and norms. This requires mastering the specific institutional terminology and jargon, which creates a kind of a mental map of hidden meanings and evaluations, as well as understanding the emotional and normative shades of the institutional language. The success of secondary socialization largely depends on the scope and nature of the “socialization techniques” used by the organization to motivate people to acquire the new knowledge. An indicator of successful secondary socialization is a high degree of employees’ identification with their new roles and the values endorsed by the organization. It must be remembered that the existence of an institution is dialectically dependent on the level of its individual members’ identification with their creation. The stronger the internalization of institutional norms and values, the more predictable and controllable the conduct of individual members of the organization. Hence, institutions aim to maintain the strongest possible control over individuals and administer painful social sanctions against those who do not show satisfactory internalization of organizational norms. The most painful institutional sanctions are derision and exclusion. It is worth noting that ridicule, slander, and social isolation are among the most characteristic forms of mobbing at work [cf. Durniat K., 2008a, 2010a, S. Einarsen, 2000; Einarsen S., Hoel H., Zapf, D., & Cooper CL, 2003, Leymann H., 1996; Vartia, 1996]. Thus, the use of mobbing or bullying within an organization can be seen as a kind of institutional mechanism of social control over rebellious, insufficiently socialized individuals. It can therefore be speculated that experiencing bullying and mobbing most often concerns those employees who are “culturally incompatible” or those who adversely evaluate the components of the climate and culture of their organization [cf. Durniat K., 2008b; 2010d; 2010e].

Basic assumptions, definition and methodology of the research on mobbing at workplaces

Based on the tradition of mobbing research in Europe, fostered mainly by Swedish scholars (Heinz Leymann's theoretical foundations and methodology of research on mobbing at workplace [Leymann H, 1990, 1996], developed by D. Zapf, C. Knorz, M. Kulla [Zapf, D., C. Knorz, Kulla M., 1996], M. Vartia [Vartia M., 1996], and most recently by S. Einarsen and colleagues [Einarsen S., 2000, Einarsen, S., Hoel, H., & Notelaers, G., 2009 S. Einarsen, Hoel, H., Zapf, D., & Cooper, CL, 2003, Einarsen, S. & Skogstad, A., 1996) – as well as on her clinical studies in the field of mobbing, the author developed her own research model and a Polish psychometric tool to measure the phenomenon [cf. Durniat K., Kulczycka A., 2006; Durniat K., 2006, 2007, 2008b, 2010a]. Underlying the mobbing research methodology has been the author's own psychological definition of mobbing, which is in accordance with the Polish legal definition of the pathology in question [cf. Labor Code, amendment of 2004, Art. 94, § 2, as cited in: Journal of Legal Acts, 2003, No. 213, item 2081]. The researcher has assumed that "Mobbing is psychological violence, taking place between at least two participants of a social interaction, where a perpetrator (less often perpetrators) systematically and deliberately targets a victim (less often victims) with repeated verbal and behavioral assaults. Although it is mostly a subjective phenomenon, it results in an objectively observable mental destabilization of the victim, their sense of injustice and absurdity and an experience of severe psychological stress. Mobbing is a process: systematically, as the persecution escalates, the victim's self-esteem and sense of professional and social competence decreases, along with increasing the feeling of helplessness" [Durniat K., 2006, pp. 428-429; Durniat K., Kulczycka A., 2006, p. 463].

The works on the creation of the SDM questionnaire – the Polish psychometric tool to study mobbing – lasted for several years [Kulczycka, Durniat 2004, Durniat, Kulczycka 2006, Durniat 2008b]. The tool, inspired by the translation of the LIPT questionnaire by Leymann [Leymann H., 1996] and supplied with a number of new statements taken from the Polish organizational reality (exploratory research: interviews with victims of mobbing at work) has been repeatedly tested and gradually evolved. The results of various statistical analyses, especially the factor analysis carried out in 2008 [cf. Durniat K., 2008b], led to the final version of the instrument, which consists of 64 test items arranged in two basic scales, called: SDM-IDM and SDM-ODC and three subscales. The SDM-IDM basic scale forms a catalog of typical mobbing behaviors (behavioral indicators) and consists of 43 items (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.956$). The SDM-IDM scale consists of three subscales: the scale of isolating and intimidating behaviors (19 items; Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.927$), the scale of overtly humiliating and ridiculing behaviors (17 items; Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.932$) and the scale of behaviors hindering professional performance (7 items; Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.803$).

The SDM-ODC scale (21 items) reflects the most typical feelings and reactions occurring on the part of the mobbed victims (emotional and cognitive indicators). The SDM questionnaire is provided with a manual for the test takers and an answer sheet attached directly with the questionnaire. In the Polish version of the tool, all the questions are closed-ended and an ordered 5-answer scale format is used, reflecting the frequency of behaviors (from “never” to “very often”). Mobbing is diagnosed based on the cumulative result of the SDM-IDM scale. The auxiliary SDM-ODC scale completes the picture of harassment with its interactional indicators, in the form of a set of specific feelings, interpretations and sensations experienced by the victim. The SDM questionnaire was repeatedly used by the author and other researchers to measure mobbing in Polish organizations; however, this article will focus on the selected results of the research project conducted at the turn of the years 2007 and 2008 (N = 465) [Durniat K. 2008b, 2008a, 2009]. The study was carried out on a heterogeneous sample of adults working in or near the city of Wrocław. The results of the SDM questionnaire were compared with the results of the adopted organizational climate questionnaire by Rosenstiel and Bögel; also, the relationship between mobbing and the socio-organizational and cultural-organizational factors were investigated¹ [Durniat K. 2009, 2010b]. The project, carried out within a broad research plan, resulted in an imposing collection of interesting results, most of which have already been described in the author’s other scientific publications [Durniat 2008b, 2009, 2010a, 2010d]. In this article, the author will refer only to the results corresponding to its title theme.

Organizational climate according to L. Rosenstiel and R. Bögel (1992)

Rosenstiel and Bögel’s concept of organizational climate grew out of Kurt Lewin’s field theory [1951]. Kurt Lewin was one of the first scientists to account for the importance of the subjective reception of the surroundings in determining an individual’s behavior. According to the assumptions of field theory, Rosenstiel and Bögel assumed that human behavior in any situational context (including the context of functioning in an organization as an employee) is the result of two main factors: the individual’s personality and the environment. Researchers have argued that apart from the objective factors such as management style, technological state or remuneration system, the behavior of people at their workplace is also affected by subjective factors associated with the perception of the institution by its staff and the attitude of individuals towards social phenomena taking place in the organization. In light of this assumption, organizational behavior of members of a given institution results from the clash of the formal features and culture of the organization (expressed as its mission, objectives, functions, and management

¹ Readers interested in the details of the research methodology, its assumptions, questions, hypotheses, and sample selection – the author kindly asks to refer to her previously published works.

style) with the needs, competencies and values of the individuals. The nature of this relationship, specific for the given organization, is the essence of its organizational climate. Rosenstiel and Bögel [1992, p. 22] define organizational climate as “a concept referring to the characteristics of the whole internal environment of an organization as perceived and evaluated by groups of its employees.” The following six dimensions, considered by the researchers as essential for assessment of the prevailing organizational climate, form the corresponding 6 subscales of the questionnaire: the relationship between employees, the management style of the superiors, work organization, information and communication, representation of employees’ interests, professional development and promotion opportunities (motivation). The contents of the subscales have been described in detail in other studies published earlier, which the author would like those interested to refer to [Durniat K., 2010b, pp. 139-141; 2012b, pp. 155-159]. The first translation of the tool into Polish and the validation studies on samples of Polish employees were carried out by Augustynowicz [Augustynowicz P., 1997]. Further research and cultural adaptation of the tools was done in 2006 by the author of this article [cf. Durniat, 2012b]. The researcher conducted a reliability analysis and factor analysis of the whole tool as well as the individual subscales of the questionnaire; as a result, the tool became more concise and economical and still more reliable than the first translated version of the questionnaire (with the reliability of the subscales measured by Cronbach’s α ranging from 0.81 to 0.92) [Durniat K., 2010b; 2012b, pp. 160-163].

The relationship between mobbing and organizational climate and its factors

Based on the distribution of the SDM questionnaire results and on the descriptive statistics, the surveyed people were divided into three groups: the low-result, average-result, and high-result groups. It was assumed that mobbing concerned the people with the high results (the upper quartile). Correlation analyses were performed, comparing the results of the extreme groups in terms of mobbing with the results of the organizational climate questionnaire. The obtained results indicate fairly strong, statistically significant negative correlations between organizational climate factors and the occurrence of mobbing. The analyzed correlations are shown in Table 1.

The results indicate the existence of particularly strong relationships between mobbing and the management style of superiors. A style of management focused more on the execution of professional tasks than on employees coexists with the employees’ experience of mobbing at work, while an employee-oriented management style seems to act as a buffer against the occurrence of mobbing.

Table 1: Correlations between mobbing (and its factors) and organizational climate (and its factors) sorted in a descending order.

Dependent variables	SDM – IDM Overall result	SDM - N Humiliating and ridiculing activities	SDM - Z Activities hindering professional performance	SDM – C Isolating and intimidating activities
The relationship between mobbing and organizational climate factors				
Organizational climate acc. to Rosenstiel and Bögel: general result	-0.699	-0.679	-0.665	-0.693
Scale P - Questions regarding superiors	-0.660	-0.648	-0.721	-0.654
Scale K - Questions regarding information and communication	-0.645	-0.610	-0.713	-0.652
Scale O - Questions regarding work organization	-0.644	-0.623	-0.675	-0.648
Scale A - Questions regarding work evaluation and promotion opportunities	-0.585	-0.578	-0.637	-0.613
Scale I - Questions regarding representation of employees' interests	-0.549	-0.534	-0.606	-0.540
Scale W - Questions about workmates	-0.541	-0.5291	-0.565	-0.545

The analyzed correlations are significant $p < .050$.

Source: Own elaboration, Katarzyna Durniat

Equally strong, negative correlations were revealed between mobbing and the perception of the efficiency and reliability of communication within a company. The experience of mobbing at work also correlated negatively with all the other organizational climate factors, such as the perception of the efficiency of work organization, the adequacy of task allocation, the perception of the adequacy of work assessment as well as rewarding and promoting employees, the perception of the adequacy of representing employees' interests and the perception of the atmosphere of trust and collaboration within teams of employees.

It can be speculated that the discovered correlations are two-sided: probably a certain organizational climate and its perception stimulates the occurrence and experience of mobbing behavior, and the experience of such behavior worsens the

perception of certain organizational climate factors. Other researchers of the phenomenon of mobbing received very similar results, confirming an association between mobbing/bullying and intra-organizational factors [Einarsen S., 2000; Einarsen S., Hoel, H., Zapf, D., & Cooper, CL, 2003; Vartia M., 1996].

Acceptance of organizational culture versus mobbing experience

In order to verify the hypothesis of an existing relationship between greater exposure to social ostracism and mobbing at work and the cultural mismatch of employees within an organization, employees' attitude towards the organization's objectives and customary procedures was also examined. For this purpose, two very short 3-item scales were created, with the items arranged in ascending order and reflecting the intensity of the explored dimension. The participants were asked to indicate the statements best describing their attitude towards the given cultural fit dimension. The participants' declaration of awareness of general objectives set by the organization as well as their connection with more particular objectives was considered the most important indicator of personal acceptance of organizational goals. Another important indicator was the sense of coherence of the operation of teams of workers in the execution of their tasks. The surveyed people were asked about the level of understanding and support for the objectives set by the organization, sense of community and meaningfulness related to the achievement of the organization's targets, and the sense of pride in the fact of belonging to the organization. The participants' declaration of understanding, support and satisfaction with organizational projects, procedures and customs was considered as the indicator of personal acceptance of organizational ways. It was assumed that this acceptance manifests itself as employees' voluntary and satisfying participation in formal and informal meetings and events. Then a correlation analysis was carried out comparing the results obtained from the SDM questionnaire and its subscales (experience of mobbing and its specific forms) with the results showing the degree of awareness and acceptance of organizational goals and procedures. A fairly strong correlation was found between the variables. The results of the correlation analyzes are presented in the table below.

Additionally, the Mann-Whitney test was used to check whether those who do not experience any mobbing behaviors (Group 0: people with a low result in the SDM questionnaire) differ from those who do experience mobbing at work (Group 1: people with a high result in the SDM questionnaire) in their attitudes towards organizational goals and procedures.

Table 2. Correlations between mobbing (and its factors) and factors of organizational culture

Dependent variables	SDM – IDM Overall re- sult	SDM – N Humiliating and ridiculing activities	SDM - Z Activities hindering professional performance	SDM – C Isolating and intimidating activities
The relationship between personal acceptance of organizational goals and experience of mobbing				
Personal attitude towards organizational objectives	0.489	0.520	0.509	0.489
Personal attitude towards organizational procedures	0.599	0.608	0.627	0.607

The examined correlations are significant, with $p < .050$. The strongest correlations in a row are printed in bold.

Source: Own elaboration, Katarzyna Durniat

Table 3. Results of the Mann-Whitney test for SC and SP scales as compared to the mobbing questionnaire results (the SDM-IDM scale)

Variable	Rank sum Group 0	Rank sum Group 1	U	Z	Level p	Z correct	Level p	N Group 0	N Group 1
SC	7514.000	14222.00	2158.000	-7.48722	0.000000	-8.4549	0.000000	103	105
SP	6524.000	14797.00	1271.000	-9.42794	0.000000	-10.0109	0.000000	102	104

The results are significant, with $p < .000$.

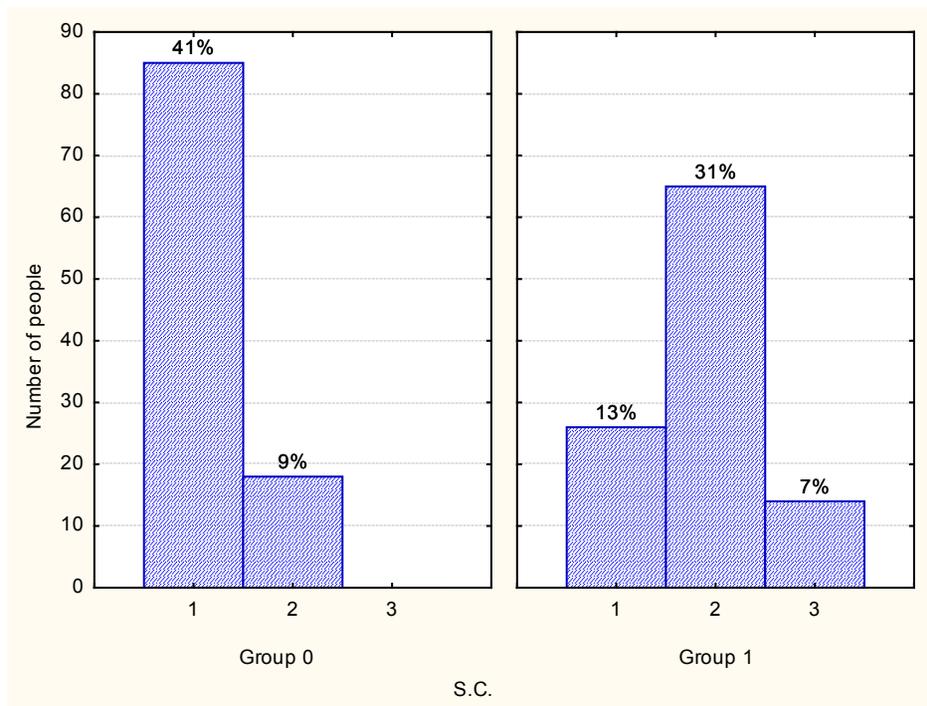
Legend: SC – personal attitude towards organizational goals; SP – personal attitude towards organizational procedures.

Source: Own elaboration, Katarzyna Durniat

The detailed analysis of responses distribution in the two groups contrasted by the mobbing show (see: Figure 1) that the majority (over 80%) of employees in the group of people who do not experience mobbing declared their support and identification with the goals of the organization they work for. The remaining percentage of people from this group declared their awareness of the goals of their organization even if they did not support these objectives. Interestingly, no one in the group of people who did not experience mobbing declared their ignorance of organizational goals. In the group of people with a high result in the mobbing questionnaire, the distribution of results was completely different. Most people in this group (over 60%) were aware of the goals of their organization but they did not endorse these goals. Some people in this group (about 25%) declared their personal endorsement of the organizational objectives, while others (about 14%) stated they were totally unfamiliar with any goals of their employer organization. The nature of the surveyed employees' attitude towards the organizational goals and objectives is

reflected by the detailed analysis of the responses in the two compared groups. The distribution of responses in the extreme groups is best illustrated by the following graphs:

Figure 1. Attitude towards organizational goals versus the occurrence of mobbing.



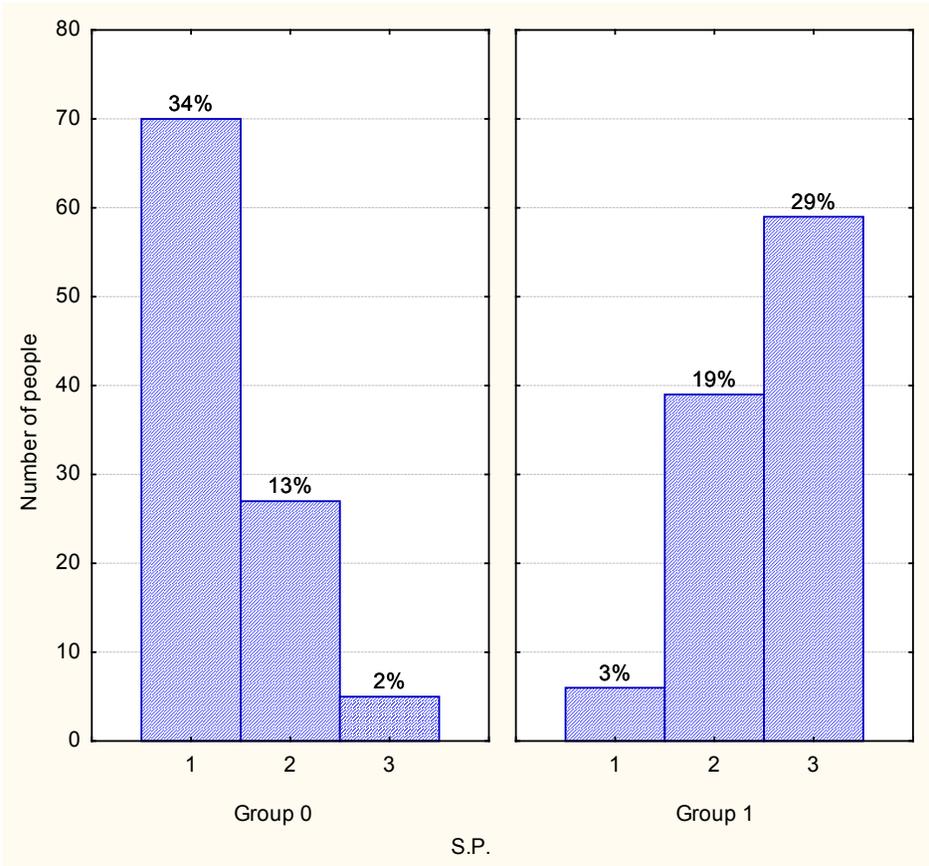
Legend: Group 0 – people with low SDM results (no mobbing experience); Group 1 – people with high SDM results (suffering from mobbing). Response categories: 1. I know the goals of my organization, I endorse and try to implement them 2. Although I know the goals of my organization I do not endorse them 3. I do not know or care about the goals my organization wants to achieve

Source: Own elaboration, Katarzyna Durniat

Assuming after G. Hofstede [2000, p. 270] that the core of organizational culture is the sense of the community of everyday routines and procedures, it was extremely important to carry out a detailed examination of this dimension and the analysis of the distribution of responses to the questions of the scale in the two groups contrasted by the mobbing result. The vast majority (around 70%) of the group of employees who do not experience mobbing at work declared their support for the customs and routines of their employer institutions. Some people in the group (about 26%) declared a neutral attitude toward organizational procedures, and only a few remaining people did not recognize themselves as supporters of the procedures promoted by their organizations. What is striking is that the distribution

of responses obtained for the group of people with the high mobbing-scale results was nearly reversed: the majority (almost 60%) of those surveyed declared their lack of interest in the procedures of their organizations, a considerable proportion of this group (almost 40%) declared a neutral attitude towards organizational customs and procedures, while a small minority expressed a positive attitude towards the procedures promoted by the institutions that employed them. The graphical distribution of responses for the two extreme mobbing-scale result groups is shown in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2. Attitude towards organizational procedures versus the occurrence of mobbing.



Legend: Group 0 – people with low SDM results (no mobbing experience); Group 1 – people with high SDM results (suffering from mobbing). Response categories: 1. I like the customs and procedures of our company. I like to participate in the life of my organization. 2. I have a neutral attitude towards the customs and procedures promoted by the company I work for. 3. I dislike participating in the life of my organization and its procedures. I believe that many of the procedures should be changed.

Source: Own elaboration, Katarzyna Durniat

It is worth adding that when asked about their subjective attribution of the reasons why they were subjected to mobbing behaviors, people who experience mobbing at work most often pointed to their own independence, tenacity, “excessive” activity and “over-involvement” as the primary causes of being mobbed. Similarly, a large group of those who only witnessed mobbing behavior looked for its sources either in excessive conciliation and lack of assertiveness on the part of the victim, or “excessive” activity and “over-involvement” of the mobbed employees in professional life (cf. Durniat K., 2008b, 2010a, 2010b). Analogous characteristics of mobbing victims can be found in the studies conducted by the Norwegian school of mobbing researchers [Glasø, Matthiesen, Nielsen and Einarsen, 2007; Lind, Glasø, Pallesen and Einarsen, 2009]. The regression analyses conducted by the researchers indicated that high conscientiousness and low agreeableness are the traits which in a way “predispose” employees to become victims of mobbing at work.

Summary

The research findings seem to bring an important piece of knowledge on socio-cultural aspects on managing organizations (especially multicultural) and their employees. Undoubtedly, these kind of research should be continued, replicated or perhaps developed and conducted on, for example selected and comparative samples of employees coming from multi- and mono- cultural organizations. It would allow us to gain further insights into the problem described in the paper. Still, the results obtained by the author suggest that individuals who threaten the viability of the institution they work for because of their cultural oddness, poor awareness of organizational goals, negative perception of the organizational climate and unsatisfactory internalization of values, norms and patterns of behavior promoted by the organization are at particular risk of becoming mobbed at work. Among them there are often new employees, poorly socialized and having distinct cultural patterns. Both cultural strangers, who consciously reject and often also challenge institutional values, norms and patterns of behavior, and those with certain social deficits that impede their adaptation to the cultural requirements of their organization, may experience mobbing at the workplace [Durniat K., 2010b, 2010c, Grzesiuk L. Gamian-Wilk M., in press]. It should also be noted that among the group of employees subjected to mobbing there are many creative, exceptional people – ambitious and highly engaged in their work and professional tasks [Durniat K., 2010c, Durniat, 2011, Gamian-Wilk, M., 2013; Grzesiuk L., Gamian-Wilk M., in press]. Highly valuable to their organization as they should be – paradoxically – such workers are often perceived as a threat to homogeneous teams and institutions with firm cultures [Sikorski Cz., 2006]. Also employees exuding enthusiasm and original ideas tend to be perceived as a threat by their mediocre co-workers or incompetent superiors. Therefore, according to the theory by Berger and Luck-

mann, fearing for the maintenance of its independent existence, institutions tend to use sanctions of ridicule and exclusion against rebellious and poorly-socialized individuals. However, what remains questionable is the moral side and purposefulness of such sanctions. The results of studies carried out by M. Gamian-Wilk [2013] contradict the effect assumed by mobbers (and institutions) – of increasing the submission of the victims; moreover, most of the research results clearly demonstrate the tremendous individual and organizational costs of mobbing [Durniat K., 2009, 2011, Grzesiuk L., 2008, Hoel H., Zapf, D., Cooper CL, 2002, Høgh A., and Do-fracdottir EG, 2002; Høgh A., Mikkelsen E.G. and Hansen A.M., 2011, 2012; Einarsen, S., Mikkelsen E.G., 2003]. Therefore, what should definitely be supported are the demands made by modern management researchers who emphasize the need for skillful management of the growing cultural diversity through integration of multiculturalism into the system of institutional mission, values and principles. Such an attitude implies the need to develop and implement appropriate procedures to promote multiculturalism within an organization as well as a system of open, multilateral and efficient communication within an organization [Pocztowski A., 2008, p.91]. Conscious shaping of a culture of cooperation and culture of adaptation [Sikorski Cz., 2006 pp. 110-160] seems to be the most functional and ethical approach to the contemporary socio-economic conditions and challenges facing policy-makers and managers of international and multicultural organizations.

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Barriers to New Practice Emerging

Abstract: The article discusses the issues of barriers to creating practice from the processual perspective in management sciences. The notion of practice is a relatively important cognitive concept in the processual approach to management. It is connected with the issues of the organizational change and draws on Anthony Giddens's concept of structuration. Management issues understood in this way are presented in the context of the specific nature of enterprises' functioning as part of their everyday actions. This article is a theoretical and empirical analysis of the issues discussed. The goal of the research is to recognize barriers to emerging practice in an enterprise. The researcher used qualitative methods. As part of this research, a semi-structured interview was conducted in an enterprise representing the textile and clothes sector. Barriers to practice development are of processual, resource and environmental character. The most important barriers to practice creation are those which are sector-specific and environmental.

Key words: barriers, practice, routines, actions, emerging practice

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Introduction

This article is a theoretical and empirical analysis of the issues concerning barriers to creating practice from the processual perspective in management. The concept of practice plays an important role in the processual trend in management. This current promotes a functional approach to the organization and management processes. It refers to the works of practice theorists and evolutionists, and draws

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on the thought of Anthony Giddens (1984), Bourdieu (2005), Nelson and Winter (1982). Within the processual current, processes and management change can be perceived from the micro-cognitive perspective, in the case of which significant cognitive categories are managerial and strategic activity, practice and practices (Jarzabkowski, 2005), and routines (Feldman, Pentland, 2003). In this context, it refers to actions carried out daily, while when understood empirically, it is based on observation of the specific character of business functioning as part of its everyday processes. The concept of practice is cognitively useful, as it draws on the theory of structuralization by Anthony Giddens [1984], the processual approach and the interpretative trend in management (Sulkowski, 2012; Jarzabkowski, 2005; Weik, 2000). An important aspect of issues associated with the change of practice is the concept of the change of routines, which is clearly inspired by the evolutionary approach (Nelson, Winter, 1982). This research aspect, analysed by such scholars as Gilbert (2005) and Moorman and Miner (1997), puts particular emphasis on exploring the issues of routines and the routinization process. The goal of this article is to present and consolidate a relatively new cognitive perspective in management in reference to the issues of barriers in change management. The concept of barriers to change is well-known in the subject literature, however, it can be said that an attempt to analyse this problem from the processual perspective will be a novelty in the practice and theory of management. An attempt at observing the barriers to new practice emerging is associated with an analysis of the specific character of functioning from the angle of everyday actions – seemingly unimportant events and processes that can determine the development of an enterprise, adaptation to ongoing changes and implementation of innovative solutions. The first, theoretical part of the article presents the main concepts that are important for the issue of barriers to creating new practice. The second part is an attempt at an empirical illustration of the approach used. The methods applied in the research were qualitative (an in-depth interview). The summary describes barriers to a new practice emerging from the processual perspective, and points out the cognitive usefulness of such an approach.

Institutionalization of practice

Institutions are the most durable categories of social order and, according to Anthony Giddens, their nature is functional, i.e. their durability is associated with their reproduction (1984). A. Giddens's structuration theory focuses on practice understood, above all, as day-to-day routines and activities (Giddens, 1984: 364). Institutionalization is a process of consolidating social categories that can be related to organization, organizational behaviour (Olivier, 1992), institutionalized practices and traditions (Dacin, Dacin, 2012: 330). Pamela Haunschild and David Chandler place institutionalization in the context of business practice and associate

it with the process of new practices' diffusion through population and organizational learning (Haunschild, Chandler, 2012: 624-649). Institutionalization can be carried out by means of planned activities, but it can also be a result of spontaneous actions (Patora, accepted for review, 2015). The concept of unplanned actions in strategic management is not new. It was already discussed in a path-breaking work of James March, who coined the term of boundedly rational action in the decision-making process (March, 1988). Those concepts become even more important in the modern external environment, which is complex and unpredictable. In such circumstances, strategic actions are taken quickly and spontaneously, while from the perspective of strategy, as Karl Weik (2000) emphasizes, significance and strategic symbolism are often linked to those events which could not have been planned, but, in spite of everything, brought positive results. It can be said that such spontaneous, yet intentional actions are characterized by certain logic, which is specific for a given enterprise and results from various factors such as shared understanding (Shau et.al, 2009: 31), learning processes (Polanyi, 1958), historical patterns of activity and routinization (Lazarcic, 2010). Spontaneous actions can be institutionalized as reproduced practice. Going back to Giddens, reproduction of day-to-day actions is at the core of the social reproduction process (Giddens, 1984: 17). Then the routinization process takes place (Lazarcic, 2010). Organizational routines allow for maintaining the processual continuity of an organization and keeping the knowledge as repeatedly reproduced processes. Actions of people within a given organization become a routine, which is subject to the manager's control on the one hand, and the processes of social interaction and self-critical evaluation of people who repeat it on the other hand. Thus, institutionalization takes place, i.e. specific methods of action are consolidated, and then they can be modified. Hence, erosion of the reproduction process is connected to stopping the routine of daily activities, while the lack of reproduction of processes and day-to-day activities can be understood as a fundamental barrier to new practice emerging. Barriers to new practice emerging can be connected to resources or processes, which is discussed in detail later in this work. They can also be associated with resignation of (some part of) previous activity of an enterprise, or be a consequence of staff reduction or changes in the external environment.

Processual and resource barriers to creating practice

Processual and resource barriers to emerging practices are relatively new cognitive categories in change management. The concept of processual and resource barriers is a development of the concept of Clark Gilbert, who, when studying the process of organizational inertia in enterprises, suggested to analyse the phenomenon from the perspective of resources and processes (Gilbert, 2005). Gilbert coined the term of resource and routine rigidity, and placed it in the context of change

management. In his research, he pointed out the differences between resource and processual (routine) contexts of inertia, and observed that resource rigidity is easier to overcome than routine rigidity (Gilbert, 2005), as it is easier to take a one-off decision about investment than change the organization in behavioural terms.

Changes of routines are connected with deep and complex functional modifications, which are placed in the historical and cultural contexts of a given organization and people who create it. Routines represent knowledge in the form of repetitively performed actions, but the acquisition of that knowledge is a conscious and reflective process subjected to situational determinants. Therefore, routines may be purposively changed, in a planned or unplanned manner, and used as a platform for the introduction of new modes of action and, by the same token, for the creation of new routines. A change of routines may also meet resistance. Thus, barriers to new practice emerging can be processual and connected to the routinization of actions. Routinization is defined as the recurrence of behaviour patterns in the context of organization learning. Routinization is associated with different levels of procedural knowledge, which facilitates operations, especially in the context of repetitive actions and working within a seasonal cycle. Christine Moorman and Ann S. Miner show that in a situation of moderate or low levels of external turbulence a high degree of procedural knowledge has a beneficial effect on performance in the short term. However, it does not improve creativity or the development of new products or services. The authors also observe that external *turbulence can reduce the value of shared (largely procedural) knowledge within organization* (Moorman Miner, 1997).

In an unpredictable environment, spontaneous factors, the ability to interpret the information flow and make the most of every opportunity become more important.

Methodology and case selection

The study presented was based on an in-depth interview with the case selected purposively by what Richard Fenno calls “soaking and poking” (Fenno, 1986). Thus, the researcher had some situated knowledge concerning the studied company and the context in which it operates. This paper presents the case of a company that is affected by some barriers to practice emerging in the seasonal cycle.

A semi-structured interview was conducted according to some general guidelines. It consisted of two parts: the preliminary part characterized the studied enterprise, while the main part addressed the issues of internationalization, collection development, product development, innovation, investment, and the use of new technologies in product development. The methods of gathering data were: an interview, non-participant observation, and document analysis (sample books, folders). The organization of the study: the in-depth interview lasted ninety minutes, when about twenty pages of notes were made, and right after the interview the

notes were completed. Instructions regarding the interview included the following issues: the enterprise's profile and foreign activity, product's development in the seasonal cycle, the method of work on the product, investment activities, sales planning, and promptness. The interview included an introductory part, where the basic information about the enterprise was established, and the main part, which focused on the research subject. The first part of the interview was conducted with the owner alone, while the second part additionally involved an informant who worked closely with the owner. Another source of data was a brief interview with the third informant – an employee of the knitting facility. The interview was conducted on the 3rd June 2014 at the seat of the enterprise. Data analysis consisted of rewriting the interview based on the notes taken during the interview. The interview was then authorized by the owner of the enterprise. In accordance with Creswell's procedure of qualitative data analysis (Creswell, 2009), the material was read in order to establish the general meaning of the information. Subsequently, the material was coded to determine the main research themes.

Profile of the enterprise

The examined enterprise has been in the textile and apparel business since 2000. The enterprise is a family business employing about ten persons. It manufactures women's knitwear, such as sweaters, sleeveless pullovers, vests, and tunics, with sweaters being the leading products. The company has its own, well-equipped knitting and sewing facility, as well as a transport department. The company sells its products in Poland and abroad (mainly to Germany), with most of its production being exported. The company occupies a specific niche in the market, addressing its products to customers representing the conservative group of laggards, according to Rogers's theory of innovation diffusion (Rogers, 1962).

Institutionalization of reproduced practice

In the textile and apparel industry, it is widely believed that fashion begins with the development of fabrics. This is also true in the case of knitwear. Therefore, a company that owns not only a sewing facility, but also a knitting facility, faces the challenge of designing knitted fabric. The design process is institutionalized – the continuous reproduction of “pattern diversity” is the fundamental area of the company's activity, which is the basis for routinely developed products in a seasonal cycle:

If you have a typical sewing facility, you buy knit fabric. The fabric you buy may be imported or Polish, and depending on the pattern of that fabric you can make, say, a T-shirt, right? A simple, plain T-shirt. And now those patterns... they come with the fabric you buy. But we produce those patterns. Like here (the interviewee presents a knit fabric sample book). The texture and colour and some openwork, the pattern itself, right? Just like this. And these are elements from a knitting machine, like this. And then this is found in the finished element.

The design process is conducted in-house, based on different sources of inspiration, and also partially contracted out to external freelancers. The company works on the regular basis to increase the variety of garment designs it offers and to improve their aesthetic value. This is a key factor in the industry, as well as the very basis for institutionalization of practice:

I'd say that as regards design, it depends. We have a student, a graduate of the Art School, and she helps us a little. She prepares some drafts in this format, some drawings like that, and suggests something. We also try to do this on our own, based on some knitwear fragments, right?(Owner)

(During the visit to the knitting facility) Knit fabrics of this type come from such plaits. When it comes to designs, there's a student who helps us a little; she also works in the knitting industry. (An employee of the knitting facility).

The owner makes it clear that design is a continuous process of product development as garments and inspirations evolve: patterns from one garment are used on other garments, and they are constantly improved. Design and product development are founded on modernization of the reproduced routines. Routine evolution in the design process remains within the limits defined by the customers' aesthetics:

These knit fabrics may be combined. It may happen that, for example, you will have some pattern that will be used on others (...) But this is a kind of a stopgap. Primarily, we come up with patterns ourselves. And we are also inspired by, yes, by customers. By the target customer.

New garments/lines in the collection throughout the season versus new practice development

The studied apparel enterprise works throughout the season. It does not plan for the number of apparel lines to be introduced, which is consistent with the adopted business model. The owner highlights the role of wholesalers in the process of production planning. This planning is short-term (on a weekly basis) and it fits well the cyclical and changing nature of the textile and apparel industry. However, in this case it seems that this volatility concerns lead time and order parameters rather than fashion changes. The lack of a need for new silhouette development is a kind of barrier to new practice development. It results from internal beliefs and bad experiences in this regard. Thus, there is no need to combine routines and capabilities; there is no need to search for new solutions. Once the samples are developed, they form the basis for regularly reproduced actions over a certain period of time. In this context, it is difficult to precisely determine the period over which the processes will be repeated because it depends on the customer and current demand. At the same time, this strategy gives the company a competitive advantage over Chinese companies, which offer much higher minimum order quantities and much longer lead times:

We work on a weekly cycle. But it's the wholesalers that matter. They simply know what sells well. They come and say: "I'll have this, I won't have that." It's like that: I prepare a collection. I show them a few patterns. So, the idea comes first, the programmer makes a program for the knitting machines. And the machine makes these elements. We take them [to the customer]. The customer takes a look at them and says: "Give me this, give me that, give me this in sizes from M to XXL, or XXXL." So if he likes it, he orders two, three, five hundred units in this or that colour. So, he orders that in four colours across the full size range. Just to give it a try. If this sells well, then he orders more. I'll get him two hundred, next week three or five hundred, and he shows it to his customers who sell it. They have their chain stores and retail it. If it sells well, then more [is ordered]. They call him and he places orders for more: "It's selling well. Give me one, two, three thousand of this," or "Don't because it's not selling well."

We have weekly order cycles. We are very flexible. Our advantage over the Chinese is that in China you have to order sweaters half a year ahead, and order at least one hi-cube container. And you can't be sure whether you're going to make a hit with the colour or the cut. You don't know. And here – two, three, five hundred units, right?

Unusual orders versus processual and resource barriers to new practice development

The company is flexible in terms of the use of resources (machinery) and the application of technologies. Its business model is based on a weekly cycle. Colours vary greatly. The company can modify the garments it produces and it can change the way its machines are used. Nevertheless, the company does not undertake to carry out unusual orders, which would require a change in the current way of making the product and a new method of using the resources. Thus, in the context of machinery, there are no resource barriers to new practice development:

I can make practically any colour on a weekly cycle. At one point in time, we delivered three versions to Germany: red, maroon, and black-and-white. Black-and-white is the basic thing. Anyway, it is the basic thing even in the Polish market. We did greys and mottled greys, right? Greys and some green. Four years ago those colours were in. Dark lilac, yes, in Poland, too. And basically, this colour has been in for the past four years, but it's started to disappear. As if everyone's fed up with it. Everybody, with this colour, this dark lilac. Now in Poland we have coral red, beige, ecru colours. Some time ago there was mint green. (Owner)

Colours are most problematic. But normally it looks like that: first there's an idea, the programmer prepares the program and the knitting machines start work. (An employee of the knitting facility)

Barriers to new practice emerging are of processual character. Thus, at the same time, the owner voices some doubts as to whether taking unusual orders and producing complicated patterns are worthwhile. On the one hand, this is justified by the limited needs of the laggards. On the other hand, important issues are the profitability of such production and the limited pricing range. Barriers to new practice development are connected to bad experiences in this regard. Difficult, unusual

orders are not carried out on purpose, as they proved unprofitable in the past:

Generally, we can make anything with the machines we have. The only thing is whether it'll bring profit. We can actually do any style. The only question is whether it'll bring profit. If I'm to put in lots of time working on a complicated pattern and this machine's going to use up a lot of fabric, if this model's going to be very time-consuming and require many operations, and then it turns out it's not worth the trouble... Maybe if we were a stronger company, if we had our own chain of stores, then we could perhaps give it a try.

“The Chinese problem” – resource versus external environment barriers to new practice emerging

From what the owner and the employee said, it may be inferred that the resource barrier (the company does not have a chain of stores) is compounded by external environment pressures for some barriers' development. It is related to the dominant position of Chinese companies and the practices of shopping malls:

At a certain point in time, we were thinking about opening our own chain of stores, but when we saw what was going on – you can just go to shopping malls and see how many strong companies have wound up (...). Stores carry mostly Chinese products. You know, the margins. The prices are so low. The stores have to mark up, like in big shopping centres, like in Manufaktura or Galeria, they have to mark up, selling sweaters at 70 PLN. And they buy it from the Chinese for 15 PLN. And I have to pay that for the raw material alone (...). Right now the “Made in Italy” products you buy in the shops are Chinese.

The owner believes the “Chinese problem” to be global, affecting the industry in different countries. It is certainly not only a local problem of weak companies. It is a problem that determines sector-specific change, which may be an institutional factor inhibiting internal restructuring change (related to organizations operating in the market, such as shopping malls and Chinese companies). This inhibitor may be difficult to overcome. A company operates under certain external circumstances. Routine change and resource flexibility are important categories of restructuring change. However, they are strongly affected by external determinants. Institutional inhibitors may hinder internal mechanisms initiating restructuring change:

Actually, it's the same thing in Paris. My German friends told me: “Listen, you go to Paris at eight o'clock. You give them a blouse and you pick up 1200, 1000 units in the evening. And that – a new design, new design, new design...”

You should realize that Chinese production is huge now. High quality, too. The colours, the patterns, they are, say, very sophisticated and complicated. These are no longer simple T-shirts. They are sophisticated. Recently, I was shocked to see a Chinese product with rhinestones which had to be manually attached. There are some templates for that, rhinestones, stitches, application methods, die stampings, extrusions, different materials.

The studied enterprise exhibits certain aspects of process inertia in terms of product development in a seasonal cycle (especially as regards the influence of un-

usual orders on product development) and in terms of its marketing strategy (the company generally does not participate in fairs). The element of resource barriers is linked to the fact that the company does not have its own stores. However, these factors are clearly determined by the external environment inhibitors of change and new practice development. To overcome these inhibitors, it may be necessary to completely remake the business model, develop a brand identity, and deploy marketing communications. At the same time, the currently pursued business model, based on fulfilling orders as they come, and focused on a narrow market segment, proves that the existing business model has been successful up to the moment, but it may be necessary to modify it in the future.

Discussion and Conclusions

Barriers to new practice development are important elements that should be taken into account when considering change in textile and apparel enterprises. The introduction of products, marketing, and technological changes on a regular basis are essential parts of the business of companies in the fashion industry. Textile and apparel enterprises cyclically reproduce processes and actions, which at the same time determine product changes in the context of fashion trends. Practice of product development is an important element of maintaining process continuity in companies working within a seasonal cycle. This is the process of micro-changes to routinely performed actions in the process of product (collection) development. In reference to works by A. Giddens (1984), and some evolutionists (Nelson, Winter, 1982), one can argue that routines are elementary units that make up and order organizational processes. Changes in an organization and new practice development are primarily initiated at the level of routines. Thus, routines reveal a dual nature: their defining repetitiveness clashes with the tendency to change them by people who consciously reproduce them. This is also an area where mechanisms initiating and inhibiting change to cyclically replicated practices collide. These phenomena affect textile and apparel companies that function in a seasonal cycle, where some routinization is a natural part of their operations.

The most important barriers to new practice development are sector-specific changes and institutional issues embedded in the external environment of the company. These are the most important pressures that may potentially invalidate the profiles of textile and apparel enterprises and their business models.

The company analysed in the case study operates in a very specific niche, in which adaptation to changing fashion is not an element characterizing the customers' needs. Barriers to new practice development are in the very case secondary to the external environment pressures. From the perspective of the population ecology theory (Hannan, Freeman, 1977), changes in an organization are strongly interrelated with changes in the external environment. Sector-specific change in

the textile and apparel business results in very demanding business conditions. The study has revealed a number of barriers and fundamental elements of adaptation to the specific characteristics of the sector: the right structuring of collections, an appropriate share of fashion products, and operating in line with fashion seasons. At the same time, the case study has indicated that the external environment plays a critical role in the process of continuous restructuring change.

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Success and entrepreneurship in the eyes of Polish emigrants in the British Isles

Abstract: This article is dedicated to the problems of success as interpreted by Polish emigrants living in the British Isles. The study begins with a presentation of selected views of success. There are then considerations of matters connected with the verification of the essence of success in terms of motivation and the values espoused in a given culture. Next is a discussion of the role and importance of the predestination of entrepreneurship as an indicator of success in the business field. A vital ingredient of those considerations was an analysis of the motives behind emigration as a phenomenon which liberates entrepreneurial actions. It is on this basis that the results are presented of the author's own research into success as understood in terms of entrepreneurship as understood by Polish emigrants living in the British Isles.

Key words: success, entrepreneurship, motivation, emigration

Introduction

The turbulent socio-economic space into which contemporary societies are plunged affects the attitudes, opinions and decision-making processes of their citizens with regard to choosing their paths for both personal and professional development. On the other hand, the knowledge, skills and qualifications combined with citizens' personal predispositions may be only be fully exploited wherever there exist legal and economic regulations which are conducive to this and allow them to realise their dreams and ambitions. This process is exemplified by, for example, the mental self-identification of individuals in categories of success, whether in the personal or professional field.

The aim of this paper is to present the attitudes and opinions about success, particularly success in business, seen in terms of entrepreneurship of emigrants.

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According to the author the issue of success is important in terms of cognitive and executive as well. Almost more than twenty years research institutes and organizations in the area of entrepreneurship deepen and native entrepreneurs operating in Poland. Against this background area of research on entrepreneurship Polish emigration is rather weakly been examined. Although efforts in this direction taken by institutes such as the Centre for Migration Research and CEED Institute and many researchers including B. Glinka [Glinka 2013], M. Lesińska, M. Okólski [Lesińska, Okólski 2013] and P. Kaczmarczyk [Kaczmarczyk 2011, 2014] the area relating to emigration as exemplification of significance in the unit external stimulation of entrepreneurial behaviors that lead to success on the basis of the business are weak. Knowledge on this topic is still very small. Understanding of success in Polish literature through the prism of entrepreneurship Poles living abroad is treated in the marginal [Grabowska - Lusińska, Okólski 2009], which speaks for the fact that there is a gap in this area, which should be filled. Analyzing business success as a consequence of entrepreneurial activities from the perspective of management sciences is important both in terms of cognitive, as the executive. Recognition of factors motivating immigrants to entrepreneurial activity will bring about improvements in the area of social policy in particular with regard to the development of tools to support the process of stopping the exodus of well-educated young people or causing the return of those who have already left.

Realising the aim adopted in this way required the author to obtain answers to the following constituent questions - can success be defined unambiguously? what determines success? who is a successful person? what has motivation to do with success? what importance does a system of values have on the road to success? what does being entrepreneurial mean? why do Poles decide to emigrate?

The material gathered serves as a background for a presentation of the research material on the quantification of success from the perspective entrepreneurship in the opinion of people living as emigrants in Great Britain.

Can success be defined?

The loudest speaker in the world is success
Napoleon Bonaparte

The word “success” surrounds us on every side. Both in the titles of newspapers¹, books, internet portals², articles and films, and in the text of advertising slogans, news reports, competitions³, lectures and business conversations, as well as

¹ Examples of magazines with the word „success” in the title are *Magazyn Sukces* published in Poland by Gremi Business Communication sp. z o.o., and *Success* magazine in the US.

² Examples of such portals specialising in the topic of success are <http://www.sukcespisanyzminka.pl/> and <http://kobieta-sukcesu.informativo.pl/>

³ A Polish example of this could be Gala Kobiet Sukcesu - <http://www.kobietysukcesu.eu/>

everyday exchanges of opinions. It could be said that the word success has caught on and become commonplace. On the other hand, every individual occurrence of this word, be it in the media or in ordinary conversations among friends, inspires much emotion. It is worth considering, however, whether everyone who uses the word success really understands it and interprets it correctly, as the use of a given word should result from a person's knowledge, feeling and behaviour confronted with his surroundings.

The word success (*Lat. successus*) means both the approach and desired result of an undertaking. Its synonyms include accomplishment, achievement, win, victory, triumph, prosperity, gain and progress. It is difficult to give one correct definition, as to paraphrase W. Clement Stone's statement: "*The essence of every man's success is the philosophy he espouses*" It can be assumed, then, that there are as many meanings of success as there are statements about it. Everyone sets targets, in other words points in space and time which they aim to reach, when undertaking various activities. It is those targets which predetermine success or failure.

Success is not a single act, but a process combining a series of events. [Qubein 1997, Mackaya 2012] The cause and effect relation in a temporal sense is a result of the essence of success. Conclusions can only be made about success from the perspective of time, when an inductive beginning happens, then a sequence of events and the final effect. Whether or not a given sequence may be labelled a success or failure depends on a range of factors which depend both on the individual and the environment.

Assuming control (as the basic premise in the culture) distinction can be made between the active and passive culture when it comes to people's attitudes to success. In the first foundation of cultural patterns of thinking is a sense of internal control and the latter sense of the external control. The essential differences between the cultures with respect to the value revealed in assigning different values objective are associated with different needs. In active culture personal development seems to be much more important while in passive culture - safety. People in these two different cultures define success in different way and have different source of satisfaction. Main value of the active culture is the satisfaction that comes from the use of the disclosed talents and skills. Main value of the passive culture is the satisfaction of social acceptance, which involves the exercise of their social roles properly (a member of the organization, co-worker, family caregiver) which is a source of security [Sikorski 2012]. Poland was for many years an example of a country domination of passive culture could be observed. But as a result of various factors including the ability to move freely between countries and learn about other cultures Poles change their approach in that area as well.

A representation of an individual's opportunities and will to realise his desires and dreams along with a balanced approach to his own existence exemplifies suc-

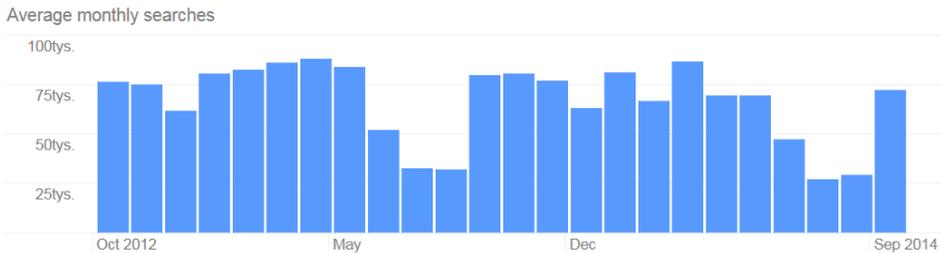
cess in every case [Scumaci 2014]. Mention may be made here of success in the categories of expectations or achievements, where the deciding role is played by the value system of a given person [Barszczewski 2013]. This becomes the indicator of success.

A person's existential multidimensionality in turn influences the various ways of categorising success - personal, business, social, etc. This may be seen as success achieved by organisations backed by people, and as successful people.

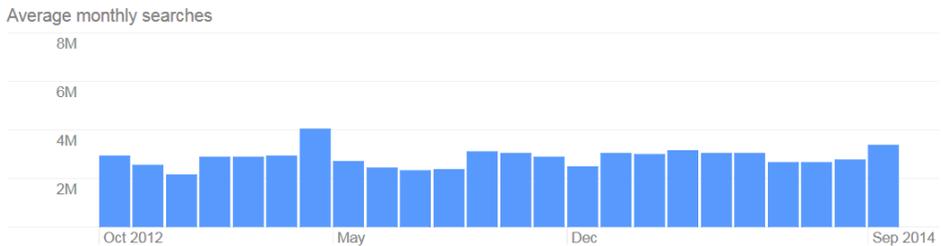
The frequency of references in the Google search engine show how commonplace this term has become in Poland and around the world. (Fig. 1).

Figure 1. Statistics of use of the search terms “sukces”, “success”, “sukces w biznesie” and “success in business” in Google between 2012 – 2014.

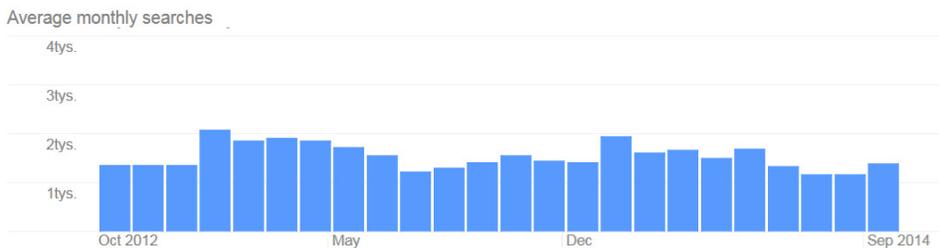
sukces



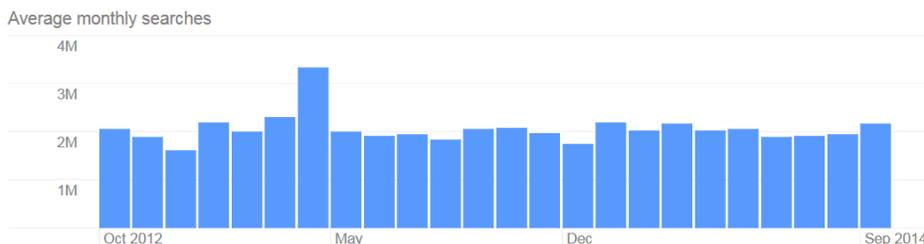
success



sukces w biznesie



success in business



Source: own work based on <https://adwords.google.com> from 01.11.2014.

The Polish word *sukces* has significantly fewer mentions during 2012-2014 than its English equivalent. If we narrow down the definition field to *success in business* we obtain an illustration of how the number of references in the search engine decreases dramatically, representing a negligible proportion of the search terms entered by internauts. The conclusion is that Polish society does not treat success in business as success. This is unlike the English equivalent, where nearly 50% uses of the term “success” are compatible with the narrower “success in business”. It can thus be assumed that the terms “success” and “success in business” are seen in the world as being analogous, and success in itself is identified more with the business context than the personal one.

What determines success?

“Judge your success by the degree that you’re enjoying peace, health, and love ”

H. Jackson Brown Jr

Human beings function within four basic spheres - the body, emotions, intellect and spirit. Although these spheres are connected and interact, they are characterised by different needs and forms of activity. A successful person is a satisfied and happy person. This is not possible without satisfying the needs connected with each of the fields mentioned. [Majewska – Opielka 2003, p. 36] The principle of maintaining a balance enables people as individuals to achieve success in every field and take satisfaction from this..

The analogy of a company may be used with regard to this view of success, with the fixed assets being the body, the emotions being the relations within the company and between it and its environment, the intellect covering its employees’ knowledge and the know-how it possesses, and finally the spirit is represented by the values guiding the company. The aspiration of both a person and an organisation to homeostasis through realisation in these fields becomes the reason for success. It may then be said that achieving revenue and profits is secondary.

It is tempting to state that people managing businesses are responsible for shap-

ing their own world as well as that connected with the company and its environment, which is a result of the private world overlapping with the professional world, the personal with the social.

Every person plays various roles in life, such as parent, employee and citizen, experiencing the world in each. This experience is often connected with a desire for happiness. Everyone desires happiness, desires success. The sequence of events is worth mentioning here. First of all, a person must feel happy being him or herself, with his or her life. When this is the case, the next step is to guide others in aiming to realise goals - aiming at success. However, Jack Canfield demonstrates that fundamental to creating a road to success is defining its starting point and asking why we are where we are. [Canfield 2005, p. 25]

Failures on this road are seen as merely a basis to learn not to follow a given decision-making path in future. These are an inherent part of the nature of success. There would be no such taste of success without the aftertaste of failure, as in Albert Camus's statement that *"It is easy to achieve success, harder to deserve it."*

Who is a successful person?

The label "successful" is ascribed to those who have a vision of their own deeds being ahead of their time. [Altman 1997] Such people have a very good sense of communication and relations. They are insightful observers of the world, they analyse, synthesise and draw conclusions. They demonstrate a creative, almost irrational, approach to problem solving, actively taking on every task. With their charisma and predisposition towards leadership, they are capable of overcoming any adversity. Spiritual strength and the will to fight accompany them continuously in the game called life.

"Our life is what our thoughts make it"

Marcus Aurelius

Successful people are admired. And many would like to be in their place. The force which pushes them to achieve success is, to a large extent, connected to the motivation affecting the state in which highly motivated people are able to overcome the limits of their own potential and achieve significantly more than they had intended. However, it is still true to say that success in business categories does not have to go hand in hand with success and fulfilment in personal life, and often does not. [Nkwocha 2013, p. 16]

What does motivation have to do with success?

“You desire not what you see, but what you imagine.”

P. Coelho

Motivation is a certain process taking place in human consciousness, resulting in a desire to do something. This desire is known as a motive, purpose or else motivational tension. The motive appears when there exists an awareness of some unsatisfied need, and this is expressed in readiness to take action to satisfy it. However, a motive requires certain conditions to be met. Firstly, there must be a need, in other words a feeling that something is missing. Secondly, that need must be essential - i.e. satisfying it or failing to satisfy it are connected with defined emotional states. Happiness in the first case, sorrow in the second. Thirdly, the person must see some chance of satisfying that need. And finally fourthly, something has to happen as a reminder of that need, or to make it possible or easier to satisfy. In other words a stimulus, also called a motivator, acts. [Sikorski 2007, p. 23] A need connected with a hunger for success refers to defeating the obstacles to performing difficult tasks with maximum use of one's own resources in a given area. As well as the need for success as understood as a negative tension, the literature also includes a qualification of the need for success expressed in categories of achievements. [McClelland 1961, p. 38] This results from the individual externalising the values instilled throughout his or her life. Here the motivation is additionally enhanced by the strength of the challenges taken up to enable individuals to expand the horizons of their own possibilities. A high sense of one's own worth is vital here. Importantly, the person's motivation to meet the challenges set can be shaped by using the appropriate educational system. So we are not born successful people, we become them.

What significance does a system of values have on the road to success?

“Our whole life is action and passion.

By avoiding involvement in the actions and passions of our times, we risk never knowing life.”

Herodotus

Someone taking up the challenge of everyday life may approach all the actions either actively or passively, taking into account the control he or she has over the tasks being conducted. The greater the feeling of internal control and self-identification as the perpetrator of the acts, the greater the sense of responsibility and skilful use of one's own abilities. When this matter refers to organisations, it is impossible not to mention the organisational culture which constitutes a system of informal role models and behaviours. Accepting that defined cultural assumptions apply in a given environment, we can indicate the system of value hierarchies

in forces where its creation is based on individuals' experiences and contacts with other people [Arndt 1998, p. 95 – 100].

The concept of values is understood as meaning the standards which make something more desired, and something else less so. Values are thus the criteria of preference applied by an individual. They function as the criteria for the choices we make when acting. Values fully available to conscious reflection directly become criteria for assessment, preferences and finally the making of a decision. However, even values which are only perceived rather than being subjected to conscious reflection function as if they constituted a basis for a choice of behaviour. [Gładys – Jakóbiak 2005, p. 63] Such a system of values becomes a basis for identity and subjectivity, and the basis for the mental balance of the individuals who make up society. The entire world is evaluated to form a reality of values which are the creation of acts of human evaluation. If we add to this the degree of activation and involvement due to the sense of control felt by the individual, we obtain a division between active and passive culture. In active culture, the foreground is taken by those individuals from the community whose value systems refer to a greater sense of internal control, who feel they are the perpetrators of their own actions and are oriented toward taking up challenges connected with self-development. For passive individuals, a feeling of safety and social acceptance is important. This also means it can be assumed that success will be defined differently by individuals and organisations as such, and by individuals and organisations functioning in different environments which are more or less supportive of them.

The essential component here is the system of standards espoused. Social norms are highly influential in terms of providing strong predestination. In passive culture, social norms refer to social cohesion, humility, modesty and tempering ambitions. There is no room there for individuals. All that matters is the team of people cooperating with one another. In an active culture, though, the accepted type of interpersonal relationships, both at work and in many other social situations, is one of competition. Assertiveness is acceptable, as are open demonstrations of ambitious goals, self-promotion and feistiness. People who behave in this way are appreciated in this culture and held up as role models. Praise for assertiveness and stubborn aiming for individual successes are indicators of a social liberalism as well as of an active culture." [Sikorski 2007, p. 38] One of the vital roles here is played by aspirations.

Aspirations as desires or aims by an individual to achieve are connected with intentions in the field of life plans and the wishes to which that individual subordinates his system of motivations, desires, values and goals. The level of aspiration is different for different people depending on the socio-economic/political environment in which they function. Depending on the role models and value systems instilled by a given society, which are to a certain extent a reflection of the system

of socialisation. Success-oriented societies will take real actions towards realising their own ambitions. And even though not everyone fully verbalises their desire for success, they do adopt defined targets to achieve, which is a de facto expression of their aspirations through a desire for success. For one person success will be learning a new language, for another promotion at work, for yet another founding and running their own business. Declarations are not enough. Actions must be taken, the strength of the entrepreneurial spirit must be shown.

What does being entrepreneurial mean?

"The best way to predict the future is to create it."

- Peter Drucker

In this context, being entrepreneurial involves a set of traits and behaviour which are oriented towards creating the future, towards achieving success. These characterise all those people who declare their readiness and have the capability to creatively undertake challenges and solve problems, and in doing so make use of the chances which arise in their economic environment.

An entrepreneurial person is one characterised by diligence, creativity, inventiveness, courage and determination. It is a person who is not afraid of risk, who can set out goals and aim to meet them. Such people use their interpersonal skills to manage teams of people. Entrepreneurial people are not afraid of difficult situations. They have an optimistic view of the world and people, and are prepared to undertake life-long learning. They are people with their sights set on the future and on success.

By analysing considerations in this way especially through the perspective of the economic nature of humans (*homo oeconomicus*) [Morawski 2001, p. 25] it can be said that humans are entrepreneurial by nature. People understood in this way are guided in their actions by their own interest, in a very narrow sense. To achieve their aims they must calculate, applying purely utilitarian criteria such as profit achieved or predicted loss. However, using these requires them to already have the abilities to define accurately and then make use of the capital - resources - they possess. [Gładys – Jakóbiak 2005, p. 30]

For intentions to be realised and an entrepreneurial spirit to form in reality, it is necessary for the economic, social and political system of a given country to be supportive of entrepreneurship. Otherwise, if it is only possible then people emigrate. They emigrate from a given country in search of a better future.

Why emigration?

“Home is not where you live, but where they understand you.”

Ch. Morgenstern

After the liberalisation of the border policy and Poland’s accession to the structures of the European Union, there began a process of emigration of Poles to countries with a higher socio-economic status. The initial phase of emigration has not slowed down, quite the reverse. A decade has now passed since European integration and emigration has not lessened. It is estimated that at the end of 2013, the population of Poland stood at 38,496,000, with 2.2m Polish citizens living abroad. The number of emigrants increased by around 0.1m people compared to 2012. In reality, this number may be even higher, varying around 2.6 to 2.7m when the grey economy is taken into consideration. Poles most often move to Britain (650,000) and Germany (550,000). Other countries chosen as new homelands are Ireland (115,000), Holland (103,000), Norway (71,000) and France (63,000). [GUS 2013] A clear majority of those who decided to emigrate did so for mainly economic reasons. Poles have left and are leaving in search of better work. Not just work as such, which they could not do in Poland, but better paid and more attractive jobs in line with their interests and aspirations.

Table 1. Willingness to work abroad (as a %)*

Interest in working abroad	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
yes	13	18	16	17	20	24
no	85	81	82	82	77	74

* The percentages do not add up to 100.

Source: based on CBOS data for 2013.

The results of research conducted by CBOS in 2013 indicate that Poles’ interest in travelling abroad to work is not weakening, but is actually growing. In 2013 one in four (24%) of those surveyed expressed a readiness to leave.

Table 2. Readiness to take up work abroad by sample age group (%)*

Interest in working abroad	18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65+
yes	62	38	30	14	9	1
no	36	58	67	84	89	98

* The percentages do not add up to 100.

Source: based on CBOS data for 2013.

Between 2008 and 2013, the age structure of persons prepared to emigrate for work changed. They are increasingly younger Poles. In 2013, according to the CBOS survey the largest group, accounting for over half (60%) of those in the entire age community, to declare willingness to emigrate for economic reasons were the 18 - 24 year olds. Young, well educated people with specific competences and skills choose emigration not only to earn. Among others they decide to take this step because they consider that in a more economically and socially conducive environment they will be better able to manage their professional development [CBOS 2013]. Many of them also hope that their ambitions can be fulfilled. They will be able to start their own businesses. This motivational imperative towards succeeding in the business field is exceptionally strong for them.

Entrepreneurship and success - success and entrepreneurship - results of our survey

“As is the thought, such is the deed”

Demosthenes

Entrepreneurship and success are interpreted by everyone individually. They ascribe a particular form to it and verbalising its meaning. Success in the context of entrepreneurial actions taken by citizens who emigrate from their mother country are a doubly interesting field of cognitive studies. For this reason the present author has made the effort to conduct research into identifying success in the context of entrepreneurial actions taken by Polish emigrants resident in Great Britain.

Research methodology

The survey carried out in May-June 2014 was of a descriptive and presentative nature. An analysis of the material gathered enabled a depictive representation of an entrepreneurial person to be produced, and an image of success to be created. The comparative summary enabled an answer to be found to the question of how Poles manage in the multicultural British environment, or whether emigration has allowed them to realise their personal career aims.

The overriding goal set before the survey was an attempt to define success in the context of entrepreneurial actions taken by Polish citizens resident in Great Britain. The research technique applied was an online survey. The measuring method used was completely dominant with relation to the standardised measuring instrument - the questionnaire. The survey covered people who had been living in Britain for at least a year. Individuals were selected for the sample on the basis of a non-random choice of typical individuals.

Presentation of the set surveyed

The survey covered 2,000 people, of whom 985 respondents had been living in Britain for over a year. This means that an individual respondent declared that during the period of at least twelve months preceding the survey they had been living and working in the UK. Among the Polish emigrants polled, there were slightly more men (51.5%) than women (48.5%). Taking into account the age criteria of those surveyed, it can be said that young and middle-aged respondents predominated. Just over a third (36.5%) of those surveyed are under 30, while over half (57.9%) are aged 30 – 39.

Table 3. Demographic illustration of the group surveyed (in percentages).

Variable	Variants of variable	% share
Sex	women	48.5
	men	51.5
Age	18 – 29	36.5
	30 – 39	57.9
	40 – 49	2.7
	50 and over	2.8
Education	vocational	38.0
	secondary	40.4
	higher vocational - bachelor's degree	21.0
	higher - master's degree	0.6
Time spent outside Poland	1-2 years	4.2
	3-4 years	6.1
	5-6 years	16.8
	7-8 years	31.6
	over 9 years	41.4

source: own material based on survey May/June 2014

In terms of education, there were as many people with secondary (38.0%) as higher vocational education (40.4%), and only a few had higher 2nd degree or vocational education. As far as their stays abroad were concerned, over half of those surveyed (58.6%) had been living as emigrants for longer than 8 years, with the largest group (31.6%) being those in Britain for around 7-8 years. A small proportion (4.2%) of the sample had been living in Britain no longer than 2 years.

To summarise the demographic make-up of the Polish emigrants in the UK, calculated on the basis of the survey results mentioned, they are slightly more likely to be men, more likely to be middle-aged, with secondary or higher education, and resident in the UK for 7-8 years.

“Live, and not merely exist”

Plutarch

Own business

People who decide to emigrate are, as shown by the survey, mostly people working for somebody. Those working for themselves, i.e. running their own businesses, also form a significant group. Many of those polled (16.6%) stated that they currently run their own businesses and may be described as entrepreneurs, which is testimony to their motivation towards achieving success.

A smaller minority of the women (11.1%) conduct their own business than men (21.6%). It is also worth pointing out that nearly half of those surveyed (49.6%) stated that although they do not currently have their own business they planned to start one. Men dominate in this group of respondents (60.0%) compared to women (38.7%). This result indicates that men have a greater desire for self-realisation in business.

Meanwhile, in terms of the time spent abroad, those with their own businesses are those who have been abroad for at least 7-8 years (18.0%). Among those intending to start up their own businesses predominate those who have been abroad longer than 1 -2 years (70.7%).

Satisfaction from work done

Respondents polled admitted that so far their jobs basically brought them satisfaction, as stated by over half of them (67.9%). Men dominate in this group of respondents (72.0%) compared to women (63.6%). However one fifth of those polled (20.6%) admitted that their current job does not make them feel satisfied. Women dominate in this group of respondents (27.6%) compared to men (14.0%). The degree of satisfaction with the work done in conjunction with gender indicates that men are more often happy with the work they do, which may be due to the kind of work they do, a different level of ambitions and demands, and attitude to the work they do.

However with regard to the time spent abroad, the people satisfied with the work they do (64.36%) are those who have been abroad for over 5 years. Among the unsatisfied respondents (6.09%) the largest group are those who have been abroad for no longer than 4 years.

The degree of satisfaction with the work done combined with the length of stay abroad allows an assumption that the longer emigrants stay in Britain, the more often they find work corresponding to their preferences or have their own business, which increases their level of satisfaction.

Identification of entrepreneurship

The idea of entrepreneurship for the respondents most often means taking up challenges in professional life (51.1%), creating new solutions while carrying out everyday duties (38.2%) and taking up challenges in their personal life (35.1%). Another group of associations indicated by the respondents are starting their own business (29.2%) and the freedom to make decisions in the work they do (22.1%). Not until third place did the respondents claim that for them entrepreneurship means actions connected with gaining further professional qualifications (14.0%), a change of job (13.5%) and managing a group of subordinates within a company structure (11.8%). Few people admitted to associating entrepreneurship with self-realisation in the social sphere (9.3%).

An analysis of the associations of entrepreneurship with starting a business in terms of gender indicates that men (32.0%) are more likely than women (26.4%) to identify entrepreneurship with starting their own business. Such an identification of associations of entrepreneurship in terms of gender is in line with the declarations of intent to start their own businesses.

Similarly, men more often than women identify entrepreneurship with taking up challenges in personal life (37.7% against 32.4%), the freedom to make decisions in the work they do (31.4% against 12.3%) and gaining further professional qualifications (21.3% against 6.3%). On the other hand women are more likely than men to associate entrepreneurship with taking up challenges in professional life (57.5% against 45.0%), creating new solutions while carrying out tasks (50.0% against 27.0%) and self-realisation in the social sphere (13.6% against 5.3%).

Sense of entrepreneurship

A large majority of those surveyed answered the question “Do you consider yourself an enterprising person?” by stating that they do (69.4%). Only a few of those polled (7.7%) admitted that they do not consider themselves enterprising people. One in five (22.8%) replied that it was difficult for them to say.

Men were far more likely (77.3%) than women (61.1%) to consider themselves enterprising people. Correlating the length of stay abroad with the sense of being enterprising shows that this index is higher for those who have been abroad for over 5 years (64.06%) than under 5 years (5.38%). The sense of entrepreneurship correlated to the length of stay abroad gives rise to the assumption that those emigrants who have lived for a relatively long time in Britain have a greater sense of their own authorship of their actions.

The respondents who described themselves as quite or definitely enterprising run their own businesses (7.81%) or intend to start them in future (40.40%). A small group of respondents admitted that in spite of identifying as entrepreneurial people they do not intend to start their own businesses (15.35%).

Identification of success

Success takes many forms in the eyes of the respondents, and there is no single dominant representation.

Among many comparisons, success is most commonly associated with self-realisation (73.0%), a successful personal life (43.0%), home/family (42.9%), happiness and fulfilled dreams (41.9%) and a successful professional life (41.1%). The second group of associations identified with success consists of those referring to a sense of freedom and independence (33.0%), having a good education (24.4%), the desire to achieve status and the acknowledgement of peers (21.8%) and the importance of health in life (20.2%). Finally a third group of associations with the idea of success consists of those referring to a desire for social advancement (17.2%), the acquisition of new skills in the field of knowledge of the rules and laws governing a given country (13.7%), a feeling of emotional peace (13.5%), being capable of managing in a culturally alien environment (13.2%) and an active approach to matters concerning their own existence (11.1%), as well as maintaining their dignity (10.1%).

Correlating the qualifications of success with the criterion of sex provides results showing that for men the concept of success is identified mainly with a sense of self-realisation (19.52%). Further associations with success stated by men are happiness and fulfilment of dreams (10.93%), home and family (10.41%) and successful personal life (9.63%). They then mention freedom and independence (8.23%), successful professional life (7.35%) status and the acknowledgement of peers (5.85%). Other associations are mentioned in less than 5.0% of responses.

Similarly, for women success also means a sense of self-realisation but to a slightly lesser degree than in the case of men (14.38%). Then women mention associating success with a successful professional life (11.06%), successful personal life (10.01%) and home and family (9.34%). Slightly further down the scale come happiness and fulfilment of dreams (8.49%), a good education (7.82%) and freedom and independence (6.98%). Other associations are mentioned in less than 5.0% of responses.

More important for men than for women as markers of success are self-realisation, fulfilment of dreams, freedom and independence, and status and the acknowledgement of peers, which is in line with their greater likelihood to declare they wish to start their own business.

Both men and women identify success as the ability to satisfy a successful professional life with their personal life, but the other way round - for women professional life comes before their private life (if they can reconcile these two worlds). Interestingly, a good education represents success for women.

The results obtained point unambiguously to a desire be emigrants for homeostasis between their professional and personal lives. This is in line with previous considerations in this article.

Feeling of success

An analysis of respondents answers to the question “Do you consider that you have achieved success in your life?” shows that a majority replied that they have achieved success (63.2%). Only one in five admitted that they had not yet achieved success (19.6%). Men (68.7%) were far more likely than women (57.5%) to claim that they had achieved success. Interestingly, a quarter of women found this hard to answer (26.2%). Such results indicate that men are confident and do not necessarily want to admit defeat, while the women’s responses and information about difficulties in defining themselves may be signs of low self-esteem and less confidence in their own achievements.

Comparing the declarations about success achieved with the length of stay abroad, it can be stated that those persons who have lived there longer than 5 years are far more likely to claim that they have achieved success (32.79%) than those who have been there less than 5 years (5.98%). Such a wide difference in the results may indicate that those who have spent longer as emigrants are more inclined to claim that they are successful.

Nearly half of those polled (49.13%) identify as enterprising and successful people. One in ten of the people surveyed (10.35%) states that by having their own business they can be said to be successful.

“To live is to fight”

Seneca

Conclusion

To summarise, success, by instilling many associations and reflecting the variety of factual states and states of mind of individuals and communities, is an exceptionally desirable way for both individuals and organisations to proclaim their presence. When included in the report on the process with a coherent effect of motivation, culture-based value system and aspirations, it predestines contemporary people to express their desires and realisations in a temporal/spatial reality. The Poles who live in Britain and consider themselves successful in life are an example of yearning for success. Emigration in a socio-economically supportive environment combined with the imperative of entrepreneurship has found its expression in the form of diverse representations of success including self-realisation, success in personal and professional life, a sense of happiness and dreams fulfilled, a sense of freedom and independence and many more. For them, every day is a challenge which they accept to realise their dreams and desires.

This article is woven into mainstream research on migration motivation of Polish citizens. In contrast to the previously occurring publications this article presents an analysis of the impact of immigration on the identification of the success

of immigrants through the prism of entrepreneurship. The research despite the limitations associated with the availability of the study population (no directories) and limiting factors that contribute to economic emigration only as determinants of migration processes have significant advantages in both cognitive and practical areas. Identifying the basics of entrepreneurship can be a significant contribution to the changes in social and economic policy of the government and therefore stop the young and talented people in the country.

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Consumer in Sports: Fan typology analysis

Abstract: Sport fan loyalty is important to attain within a culturally rich and global audience as loyal sport fans are unique consumers. The ability to adequately understand what motivates the sports consumer is an important requirement for sport managers. This paper proposes that a greater understanding of fandom will contribute to a better understanding of the concept of loyalty. Although there is research regarding typology of fans and loyalty, but even within sport advocates group there may be sub-categories that can explain loyalty behaviour further. This research analyses types of sport fans in different disciplines in the UK, as an example of diverse society to explore factors determining category of fans.

Key words: consumer, sport, fan typology

Introduction

Sports consumers display a bewildering array of values, attitudes, and behaviours (Mir 2000; Shank 2002; Westerbeek and Smith 2003). Not all sports consumers are equally passionate and fanatical nor use their team to confirm their personal identity (Redden and Steiner 2000). Neither are they totally loyal, engrossed in club history, or resistant to change that threaten team values and practices. Some attend games on a regular basis, while others attend only on special occasions. Some consumers spend most of their time engaging in sport chatter trawling the internet, while others display their fandom by watching pay television sport channels. They experience sport in different ways, and use the team affiliation to meet a diverse range of needs (Wann, Melnick, Russell and Pease 2001).

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The ability to adequately understand what motivates the sports consumer is an important requirement for sport managers (Brooks 1994). Understanding different spectator motivations can be of significant benefit to the sport marketer looking to boost team revenues and gate receipts. Of particular interest are both the marketing manager understanding the specific motivations that drive a spectator or fan to consume sport (Bernthal and Graham 2003) and the subsequent development of marketing communications based on these motivations (McDonald et al 2002). These effective marketing communication plans can often help build groups of “fanatical fans”, thus expanding the customer base for a team (Pease and Zhang 2001). What motivates consumers to become emotionally committed to a brand is particularly important to marketers. In a sporting context where fans demonstrate extreme forms of emotional commitment an ultimate version of brand commitment can be demonstrated. Understanding different forms of fanship may provide insight generically to consumer loyalty patterns and specifically provide insight into sporting behaviour for the marketer.

Sport fan loyalty is important to attain within a culturally rich and global audience as loyal sport fans are unique consumers: their commitment to a sport team is “arguably unparalleled in other business or leisure sector” (Tapp and Clowes 2002:126). While many industries face the problem of declining brand loyalty amongst their customers (Lipke 2001), the sporting industry has lifelong fans that demonstrate tremendous loyalty and devotion, even to teams with a long history of poor performance (Bristow and Sebastian 2001).

This paper proposes that a greater understanding of fandom will contribute to a better understanding of the concept of loyalty. Although there is research regarding typology of fans and loyalty, but even within sport advocates group there may be sub-categories that can explain loyalty behaviour further.

Conceptual Framework

The word ‘fan’ has been used in various disciplines from sociology to marketing in management. It is an abbreviation from fanatic. Fanatic derives from the Latin “fanaticus” which literally means “a temple servant, a devotee”. It also refers to people “inspired by orgiastic rites and enthusiastic frenzy” (Jenkins 1992). It has also been described as sacred or beneficial (Rudin 1969: 12). In the course of time, the word has been used in a reference to any excessive enthusiasm which is considered with religious zealotry, false beliefs, orgiastic excess, possession and madness.

Unique features of Fans as consumers

On the basis of the sociological and managerial description about fans outlined above, three unique features of the fans as consumers can be identified as follows:

Fans possess a strong and intense emotional attachment with the consumption objects. Emotional affiliation has been used to distinguish the fan from general consumers. Jenkins (1992) identifies the differences between watching a TV drama series and becoming a fan of the drama as lying in the intensity of the fan's emotional or intellectual involvement. Grossberg (1995) observed that a fan is more closely associated with a particular form of intensity or affect compared to general customers. Following Oliver's (1980, 1991, 1999) classification of stages of loyalty, fandom cannot be reached unless the object is part and bundle of the consumer's self identity and his or social identity. Abercombie and Longhurst (1998) place the position of fan on a continuum of audience experience and identities which range from the consumer at one end, to the producer on the other end of the scale, taking in the fan, the enthusiast and the cultist along the way. Sports consumers form psychological connections to specific teams that are persistent and resistant to change (Kolbe and James 2000; Trail and James 2001). Kolbe and James found consumers themselves as part of the team, demonstrating a strong psychological commitment.

Fans behave as loyal consumers who exhibit several loyalty behaviours, such as repeating their purchase or patronage, or insisting on staying in the relationship between brands or products. Regular and repeated consumption is the clearest indicator of a particular emotional investment of the fan in the literature. Brooker and Jermyn (2002) and Harrington and Bielby (1995) identify the relationship between repeated consumption and the emotional commitment of these fans. Sandvoss (2005) observes that most of those who labelled themselves as fans, pointed to their repeated consumption patterns. He defines fandom on the basis of repeated consumption and emotional bond with the fanatic objects and his description of the fan equates with consumer loyalty behaviour. Such loyal behaviour is a composite blend of brand, an attitude and behaviour with indexes that measure the degree to which the consumer favours and purchases a brand repeatedly (Day 1969, Pritchard and Howard 1997).

Fans present informal membership behaviours, such as co-production and investment. The relationship between fans and the object tends to always be active and proactive. Active participation on production processes distinct fans from general consumers. Among television fans, (Jenkins 1992) found some media fans as consumers who also produced, such as readers who also wrote, and spectators who also participated. In a similar vein, Grossberg (1995) addresses that fandom creates something more than consumption of cultural objects and actively produces views on the objects. Cavicchi (1998) notes, that fans are specialist consumers, in one sense, they are consumers whose consumption habits are highly predictable and are likely to remain stable. Fans want to get involved with production of the object rather than simply repurchasing or possessing it. Consequently, the fan's intense consumption is valued by uniting consumption with the cultural values of production.

In the marketing context, Bhattacharya (1998) characterises the consumer who has greater affiliation with the organisation as informal membership, which implies that highly loyal consumers are more actively involved in the organisation's activities as a co-producer. Unlike the traditional view on the consumer loyalty which focuses on consumers repurchase or repatronage, membership motivates the consumer to help the organisation by volunteering time and gifting money to support the mission of the organisation.

In sociology studies, fandom is used to portray the interaction between audience and popular media within culture studies (Horton and Wohl 1956; Schikel 1986). From the late 1980's Fiske (1989) and Jenkins (1991, 1992) were the first to put emphasis on fans and fandom in media and cultural studies. Fiske (1989) and Jenkins (1992) introduce the concept of motivation and the interaction between fans and the objects of their fanaticism. A fan is generally viewed as an obsessed individual someone who has an interest in a certain team, celebrity, show, brand and the like (Hills 2002). Fiske (1992) has defined fandom as a consequence of specific social and cultural interactions, institutions and communities, formed through the close interaction of committed groups of fans in a sub-cultural context. Sport fandom can enhance psychological well-being and the quality of life (Curtis et al 1986; Giambatti 1989; Grove et al 1982; Smith 1989, 1981). It has been argued that identification with sport teams may serve to replace traditional but declining social ties such as religion and the family (Branscombe and Wann 1991; Melnick 1993; Putnam 1995, Melnick and Wann 2011). Social connections resulting from sport identification may prove beneficial to ones psychological health by serving as a buffer against depression and alienation while increasing self-esteem (Pan et al 1997; Smith 1988, 1989; Zillman et al 1989; Keaton and Gearhart 2014).

Sport fandom is a subject of research in many dimensions such as sport fandom and affective expression (Ferguson 1981, Coakley 1994), sport fandom as performance entertainment (Lancaster 1997, Wann et al 1997), sport fandom and communication (Hardaway 1976; Seagrave 1994), sport fandom and religion (McGee 1975, Novak 1976), sport fandom and national identity (Goodger and Goodger 1989), sport fandom and integration (Lever 1983, Wilkerson and Dodder 1987; Melnick 1993) or fans in management (Hill 2001; Kozinets 2002; Sandvoss 2005). This rich research around sport fandom indicates importance of it for marketers and academics.

Fans in Sport

Sport fans are typically thought to have a stronger emotional commitment and response than non-fans when viewing sport (Gantz and Wenner 1995). Hunt, Bristol and Bashaw (1999: 440) formally define a sport fan as 'an enthusiastic devotee of some particular sports consumptive object' The notion of being a fan in popular culture has in some cases been seen as a negative (Jenkins 1992; Jenson 1992), but

others authors see it in a much more positive light and that being a fan can be therapeutic act (Fisk 1992; Wenner 1990). Pooley (1978: 14) suggests that casual sport spectators are simple observers and soon forget about a sporting event at its conclusion, whilst more committed fan is said to "continue his interest until the intensity of feeling toward the team becomes so great that parts of every day are devoted to either his team or in some instances, to be broad realm of sports in general". The distinction is best made by Guttman (1986) where the term fan refers to the emotionally committed consumer of sports events. The terms overlap but are obviously not identical. In practice most fans are spectators and most spectators are fans, but it is logically possible to be one and not the other.

Spectators are a key constituent of a sport organisation's success – greater fan numbers attract sponsors. A form of double jeopardy exists – sports that attract small crowds are unlikely to attract large sponsorship deals or negotiate lucrative television rights, further reinforcing the sport's low profile and its unattractiveness for sponsors. Fans are the demand nodes; differences in demand according to spectator characteristics are recognised. A number of sport fan studies, reviewed by Quick (2000), have suggested that not all fans are motivated by the same factors. Various typologies of fan attendance abound in the sport fan academic literature with many relying on product usage rates (levels of spectatorship) for their classifications. The terms "theatre-goers", "fair-weather fans" and "hardcore fans" connote attendance status as well as commitment to the sport/team. Typically, "theatre-goers" and "fair-weather fans" display temporal and situational involvement with their team/sport whereas "hardcore fans" display enduring involvement (Madrigal 1995). Implicit in most sport marketing activity is the desire to move spectators up the attendance/participation escalator (akin to Christopher, Payne and Ballantyne's 1991 "ladder of loyalty") thereby turning light users ("theatre-goers" and "fair-weather fans") into heavier users.

Quick (2000) summarises the heterogeneity of sport fan spectatorship. "The tribal, hard-core fan is but a minor figure in the professional sportscape. In recent decades a number of other fan segments have been identified, each having a different expectation of the sport experience. Moreover, each group, whether consuming the sport product at the event, on the street, or over the Internet, has unique value to the sport organisation; because of this, if possible, the needs and experiences of each group must be accommodated" (Quick 2000: 150). From previous research undertaken three types of fans have identified (refer to Table 1).

*Fan types***Table 1: Fan types**

Fan Category	Literature	Motivation	Classification
Temporary Fan	Champ follower (Stewart/ Smith1997) Theatre-goer (Stewart/ Smith 1997) Carefree/Casual (Tapp/ Clowes 2000) Aficionados (Stewart/ Smith1997) Corporate fan (Nash 2000), Modern/Fan (Boyle/ Haynes 2000) Social/fan (Sutton et al 1997) Less Loyal (Bristow/Sebastian 2001)	Emotional Stimulation (M) Group Affiliation (L) Group Disassociation (L) Economic (H) Self Identity (L) Information acquisition(M)	Brand Commitment (L) Personal Commitment (M) Enduring involvement (L) Situational/involvement (H) (Hirt et al 1992) Advocacy (L) (Oliver 1999, Tapp 2004) Usage (L) (DeSchrive/Jensen 2002, Funk et al 2002,Hansen/ Gauthier 1989)
Devoted Fan	Committed casual (Hunt et al 1999) Focused Fan (Sutton et al 1997) Passionate Fan (Stewart/Smith 1997) Traditional Fan (Boyles/Haynes 2000)	Emotional Stimulation (M) Group Affiliation (H) Group Disassociation (M) Economic (H) Self Identity (M) Information acquisition(M)	Brand Commitment (M) Personal Commitment (M) Enduring involvement (M) Situational/involvement (H) Advocacy (M) Usage (M)
Fanatical Fan	Die Hard (Sebastian 2001) Fanatical Fan (Hunt et al 1999) Vested Fan (Sutton et al 1997) Passionate Fan (Stewart/Smith 1997) Traditional Fan (Boyles/Haynes 2000)	Emotional Stimulation (H) Group Affiliation (H) Group Disassociation (H) Economic (L) Self Identity (H) Information acquisition(M)	Brand Commitment (H) (Doss1999,Muniz/O'Guinn2001, Personal Commitment (H) (Funk1998,Muniz/O'Guinn 2001) Enduring involvement (H) (Redden/ Steiener2000,McAlexander et al 2002) Situational/involvement (H) Advocacy (H) (Hugenberg 2002) Usage (H) (Hoffman2000)

Types of fans

Temporary Fan

The stronger an individual identifies himself or herself as a “fan” the more the individual uses this specific identification with regard to external others and internally, to discern himself or herself. However, being a fan is not used by the temporary fan for self identification (i.e. being a fan is not central to the temporary fan’s self concept). The temporary fan’s interest in the phenomenon is time constrained. After the phenomenon of interest is over, the fan is no longer motivated to exhibit behaviour related to the sports object, but rather return to normal behaviour.

This time boundary is the primary factor that differentiates the temporary fan from other sports fans. What might explain a temporary fan’s motives and behaviour? Cialdini et al (1976) suggested basking in reflected glory theory (BIRG) as a way to understand fans. It involves the tendency for an individual to attempt to internalize the success of others.

Devoted fan

The devoted fan remains loyal to their team or player even if either the specific, short-term event that captivated their temporary attention has ended or if they are removed from the context of the original geographical location. According to Ball and Tasaki (1992), a person is attached to a particular object to the degree that the object is used to maintain his or herself concept. The more an object constitutes part of a consumer identity, the more the consumer exhibits protective behaviour toward the object, the greater the effort the consumer spends on maintaining the object, the greater the consumer’s emotional difficulty in accepting deterioration or loss of the object. Thus, neither BIRG nor cuttings of reflected failure (CORFing) explain the motives and behaviours of devoted fan. The devoted fan possesses an attitude of my “team right or wrong”. The devoted fan uses being a fan as an important part of self-identification, yet not the most critical or central self-definition in one’s life.

Fanatical Fan

Early explorations of social psychology theories currently adopted in sport sociology research of fan loyalty provide preliminary insights that help develop our understanding of the development of fanaticism and this unique form of intense loyalty. For example, the concept of socialisation provided explanations that can explain the process by which individuals are introduced to the brand that later becomes the object of fanaticism, e.g. socialising agents such as family, peers, school and community attract or draw individuals to learn to accept the values, goals,

beliefs, attitudes, and norms of the fan culture (James 1997; Huffman et al 2000; Wann et al 2001). Social identity and self-esteem maintenance theories help explain how an individual may develop an attraction to an object, and, attachment theories for insights into how a person may become fanatical via the process of attachment. Consumer fanaticism is a unique form of loyalty characterised by strong and intense levels of commitment, allegiance, devotion, passion, emotional attachment, enthusiasm and involvement (Bristow and Sebastian 2001; Cova and Cova 2002; Funk and James 2001; Muniz and O'Guinn 2001; Oliver 1999; Redden and Steiener 2000; McAlexander et al 2002). Fans are unique consumers because their interest in a brand is self-sustaining (Pimental and Reynolds 2004). They voluntarily engage in behaviours beneficial protecting the brand, and ensuring the brand's continued existence and legacy (Doss 1999, Fournier 1998, Fournier and Yao 1997; Pimental and Reynolds 2004; Rozananski et al 1999). Fanatical consumers exhibit a deep love for the brand and remain loyal despite poor brand performances (Hugenberg 2002; Hunt, Bristol and Bashaw 1999; Rifkin 1999; Whang et al 2004). They display a true admiration for the brand, and their devotion, passion, and enthusiasm are often considered infectious in attracting new customers and fellow followers (Belk 2004; Pimental and Reynolds 2004; Rifkin 1999).

Fanatics are valuable customers of a brand and attractive to marketers due to a variety of reasons. For example, some fanatics have extreme consumption drives, which imply heavy usage and purchase patterns (Huffman 2000). They act as opinion leaders to bring others' attention to the brand and attract new customers on behalf of the company (Rifkin 1999). Fanatics venture to great personal and financial lengths to support the brand, such as by joining and actively participating in brand communities (Funk 1998; Muniz and O'Guinn 2001). Their support is consistent, persistent and resistant to any attempts at reducing this attachment, which includes the active disregard of marketing messages from competitor brands (James 1997). Hugenberg (2002: 178) explains that organisations become wealthy as a result of fan loyalty.

The fanatical fan is similar to the devoted fan in that the fanatical fan is not bounded by time or distance and defines self through attachment with the sports consumptive object. The fanatical fan uses being a fan as a very important part of self identification. The fanatical fan engages in behaviour that is beyond the normal devoted fan, greater level of knowledge, greater level of anxiety and arousal watching their team compete (Branscombe and Wann 1992; Wann et al 1998) yet the behaviour is accepted by significant others (family, friends, other fans) because it is considered supportive of the team, player or sport. Devoted fan may go to games. Fanatical fan may go to the game and paint their body with colours of the team, or go in costume, or in some way exhibit behaviour that is different from the devoted fan. Interaction with the club is highly valued. Supporters engage in web site discus-

sions and email commentaries, are keen in joining supporter groups, and actively seek out and subscribe to newsletters and fanzines.

Involvement

Involvement has been defined as a state of motivation, arousal, or interest toward a recreational activity or associated product (Rothschild 1984). Involvement represents an internal state variable that reflects the amount of arousal, interest, or drive evoked by a particular stimuli or situation that mediates consumer behaviour (Mitchell 1979). Involvement research delineates situational involvement from enduring involvement (Houston and Rothschild 1978; Richins and Bloch 1986; Richins et al 1999). Enduring involvement is conceptualized as the ongoing baseline level of concern with an activity or product, i.e. individuals ongoing concern with the team. Situational involvement is a passing increase in concern for the activity or product due to temporary circumstances (Richin and Bloch 1991). For example, a fan that is preparing to attend may have high situational involvement on that evening. Thus, enduring involvement represents an individual's ongoing level of interest in an activity or product class (Houston and Rothschild 1978). Enduring involvement is independent of situations. High levels of enduring involvement are likely to occur when the individuals perceive an activity or product offers hedonic benefits or is closely linked with the self (Laurent and Kapferer 1985).

Loyalty

The concept of loyalty has earned considerable attention in the broad area of consumer behaviour, and the importance of studying loyalty has been recognised more than ever (Oliver 1999). The construct of loyalty has evolved within a framework of behavioural, attitudinal and composite concepts. First loyalty was defined as an overt behaviour or consequence of behaviour (Cunningham 1956). Therefore, it centred on repeat purchase patterns of the same brand over time. Later, attitudinal component of loyalty earned attention as a better way of understanding the underlying psychological phenomenon behind the behaviour. Thus, the attitudinal definition of loyalty focused on the position of the object along a continuum of customer preference (Day 1969). Then, the composite conceptualization of loyalty emerged. In this notion, loyalty is viewed as a two dimensional phenomenon that is a function of favourable attitudes and behavioural repetition over some period (Jacoby and Kyner 1973). This concept allows researchers to categorise the extent of loyalty as high, spurious, latent and non-existent (Backman and Cromton 1991a; Dick and Basu 1994).

In the sports literature, fan loyalty and identification with the team are seen as the main determinants of fan behaviour. The popularity of fan loyalty is probably due to the fact that loyalty of sports fans is in some ways dysfunctional. Sometimes,

loyalty is increasing the worse the team is performing (Bristow and Sebastian 2001). Hence, in contrast to the assumptions in sport economic literature, satisfaction with the outcome of the game appears to have little link to loyalty at least for some of the sports fans.

Attitudinal dimension of fan loyalty is represented by the psychological commitment of a fan to the team. Commitment is typically defined as the emotional or psychological attachment to brand (Beatty and Kahle 1988). Previous measures of fan's psychological commitment have included three components of commitment: inner attachment, persistence and resistance (Gladden and Funk 2001; Mahony et al 2000; Pritchard et al 1999). Fans therefore show a high level of psychological commitment if they feel a deep inner attachment to their favourite team and if their commitment is persistence overtime and resistant to criticism. In the organizational behaviour literature commitment has been examined extensively (Meyer and Allen 1984), suggests that measure of commitment should also include indicators regarding the degree to which individuals care about the long term success of the organization (O'Reilly and Chatman 1986), in this case favourite football club or team. Wakefield and Sloan (1995: 159) define team loyalty as an "allegiance or devotion to a particular team that is based on the spectator's interest in the team that has developed overtime".

Behavioural loyalty represents past behaviour as well as behavioural intentions (Homburg and Giering 1999). Past behaviour comprises past purchasing behaviour and past positive word of mouth. By transferring the loyalty concept to fan behaviour, the following activities constitute past loyal behaviour in the team sport context: attending the favourite club's games live in the stadium, watching the favourite club's game on television, consuming other club-related media, purchasing club merchandise, wearing the colours or logo of their favourite club, and trying to convince others that the favourite club should be supported (Funk et al 2003; Funk and Pastore 2000; Gladden and Funk 2001; Mahony, Madrigal and Howard 2000; Shank and Beasley 1998). The intentional component represents the positive and persistent future behaviour of the fan. It embraces intended loyal behaviour and positive word of mouth, as well as cross buying intentions (Homburg and Giering 1999). Positive word of mouth is referred to as all informal communication between a consumer and others concerning evaluations of goods and services, including recommendation to others (Anderson 1998). Cross buying refers to a fan's practice of buying additional products and services from a favourite club brand in addition to the ones he or she currently owns (Ngobo 2004), particularly, relevant for sport marketers today because most professional clubs now have brand extension strategies whereby they are expanding the range of branded products and services beyond club merchandise (Apostolopoulou 2002; Chadwick and Clowes 1998).

In addition, loyalty of sports fans is fascinating because loyalty is important to

them in a way that is not to consumers in most sectors (how many shoppers will sing 'loyal customers' as they make their weekly trip to Asda?) (Tapp 2004:204). Therefore, loyalty to a team is a highly meaningful concept for sports fans. While Parker and Stuart (1997) point out that exclusively loyalty to a team is the norm and that loyalty is not affected by team success at all, other authors state that loyalty of sports fans cannot be taken for granted. They emphasise that different types of sports fans show different type of loyalty and different behaviour depending on the team's success (Tapp 2004). Based on the work of Dick and Basu (1994) Tapp (2004) found a number of football supporter categories based on their attitudinal and behavioural loyalty to a team. On the one end of the spectrum is a fanatic and at the other end a supporter who attended only occasionally. Whereas fanatics will still be loyal to a team even when success is missing, casual supporters might cease to watch the games in such a situation. These different reactions are described by Cialdini et al (1976) as BIRGing (Basking in Reflected Glory) and CORFing (Cutting off Reflected Failure) behaviour. Several researchers have found that BIRGing and CORFing tendencies vary across different types of sports fans (Madgrial 1995, Sloan 1989). Wann and Branscombe (1990) found that individuals high in team identification were more likely to BIRG after a victory and less likely to CORF after defeat. Those fans are likely to support their team even when they drop down a league and satisfaction with the outcome of a game is not linked to their loyalty (Tapp 2004).

Commitment

Commitment, in marketing context, is used as the degree to which an individual views his/her relationship with consumption objects from a long-term perspective and is willing to stay with the relationship even when things are difficult. This concept of commitment has been used to measure marketing effectiveness. Day (1969) employed commitment to determine a more accurate description of loyalty. Jacoby and Kyner (1973) emphasise that the notion of commitment provide the essential basis for distinguishing between brand loyalty and other forms of repeat purchasing behaviour. Samuleson and Sandvick (1997) state that commitment describes a bond or attitude strength between a consumer and a particular brand, thus extending the meaning of loyalty and should go beyond simple repurchasing or repatronage. Amine (1998) addresses the feature of true brand loyalty, and regards it as effective buying.

General sport consumer motivations

Motivation has been defined as the driving force within individuals that impels them to actions McClelland (1951). He observed that a motive became a strong affective association, characterised by an anticipatory goal reaction and based on

past association of certain cues with pleasure or pain. Murray (1964) extends the above description stating that, “a motive is an internal factor that arouses, directs, and integrates a person’s behaviour...[a motive] is not observed directly but inferred from his behaviour or simply assumed to exist in order to explain his behaviour” (Murray 1964).

Hunt et al (1999) classification schema focuses on the source of motivation and on the behaviour exhibited by different types of fans. Similar to the concept of involvement, the linkage between motivation and actual behaviour can be temporary or enduring (Richins and Bloch 1986). For example if social pressures or temporary circumstances are the source of a consumer’s motivation to engage in sports related behaviour, then such motivation is termed situational. Situational motivation is bound by time or space and thus is more temporary in nature. Conversely, if the source motivation is not context bound, then motivation is identified as enduring. Enduring motivation is likely, given that the fan perceives the sports object as important to his or herself-concept. Unlike situational motivation, enduring motivation has no such time or location constraints. The source of temporary and local fans motivation is situational, while the source of motivation for devoted, fanatical, and dysfunctional fans is enduring.

For those fans whose motivation with sports is more enduring, differences occur because of their level of attachment to the sports object (i.e. the degree of centrality of sport to self). Ball and Taski (1992) suggest that attachment is conceptually distinct because the object of attachment acquires meanings and significance beyond that of a simple involvement or importance. Fans reveal their level of attachment through their sports related behaviours. Devoted, fanatical fans differ in terms of their attachment to the sports consumptive objective, as exhibited by their behaviour towards that object.

Group affiliation

In most instances, sport spectating is a social activity (Danielson 1997). Whether it occurs at home, a restaurant, a bar, or the arena sport tends to be consumed in a group environment. For some individuals, it is precisely the social nature of sport spectating that attracts them to it. They are motivated by the group affiliation motive, that is, a desire to spend time with others (Gantz and Wenner 1995; Guttman 1986; Melnick 1993; Pan et al 1997; Sloan 1995; Smith et al 1981). Group affiliation is motivated by a desire for positive distinctiveness from other social groups (Madrigal 2002). Sport fandom and sport spectating can help to fulfil the human need for social interaction by providing a sense of belongingness. The fact that most spectators consume sport as a member of a social group suggests that fans do indeed use sport to satisfy social interaction needs (Mann 1969; Aveni 1977). For some fans, the opportunity to spend some time with friends is a driving mo-

tivational force behind their decision to consume sport (Melnick 1993; Pan et al 1997, Melnick and Wann 2011). This motive is particularly common among sports fans that have children and or are married (Wann et al 1998). In affiliation, one important part of the identification process with the group is rituals like collecting, pilgrimages and viewing the club as a part of one's self identity. Consuming some brands becomes part of the integration.

Self-identity

Social identity theory, rooted in the symbolic interaction tradition, focuses on the connection between self, role and society (Stryker 1980). In this conceptualization, the self is composed of "multiple selves", some which are more important than others. This notion can be traced back to James (1890). This view of the self recognizes the social units that people live in are relatively small network of relationships that impact individuals identities. Kleine et al (1993) find that social identity perspective is useful way to study the many different types of consumption people routinely partake in. The role of identity theory is to understand how and why individuals select certain identity related activities, given all of the possible alternatives (Serp 1987). Shamir (1992) finds identity salience is related to commitment to participation in a leisure activity and to the time invested in the activity. Additional support, in the context of leisure is offered by Laverie (1998) who demonstrates that identity salience is an effective predictor of motivation for participation in a specific leisure activity. Social identity theory is applicable because fan behaviour is socially visible, involves relationships with others, can lead to the formation of a fan role and one can experience satisfaction associated with that role. Therefore, those with high level of identity salience for being a fan of a sporting team will attend more games than those low in identity salience.

Economic

For some individuals, it is the potential economic gain from sport gambling that attracts them to the role of a fan. These persons are driven by the economic motive (Chorbajian 1978; Eastman and Land 1997; Frey 1992; Gantz and Wenner 1995; Guttman 1986).

Emotional Stimulation

As is widely known, sport can provide fans with stress and stimulation. Fun and enjoyable stress often referred to as "eustress" is a major motivational factor for fan attraction (Madrigal 1995; Mahony and Moorman 1999). It involves a desire to gain excitement and stimulation through sport (Gantz 1981; Sloan 1986). Fans with high level of eustress (i.e. euphoric stress) motivation become involved with the pastime because they enjoy the excitement and arousal they experience watching

sport, whether it's the drama of close game or escape from their everyday routines.

Information acquisition

Many fans attend sports events to gain knowledge about the particular sport and improve on their physical fitness by watching these events (Ryckman and Hamel 1993; Elay and Page 1999; Koivulos 1999).

Group disassociation

Although many supporters of sport belong to a group, previous research (King 1997) has noted that that a minority support their teams in a solitary way.

Table 2: Motivation Table

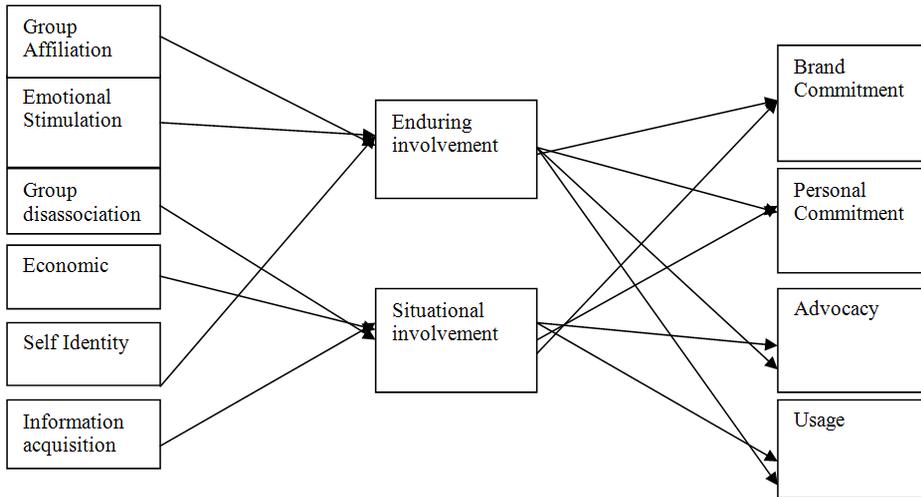
Motivation	Definition	Dimension	Authors
Group Affiliation	Developing and maintaining associations or relations with others.	- family - social opportunity - community	Branscombe/Wann 1991 Gantz 1981 Guttman/Smith 1988 Wenner/Gantz 1986 Funk 2001 Jamber 1999 Weiss/Duncan 1992
Emotional stimulation	Seeking higher emotional retreat	- escape - drama - risk taking - aesthetics - eustress - stress/stimulation - salubrious effects - aggression/catharsis - entertainment	Madrigal/Howard 1995 Sloan et al 1987, Wann 1995, Zuckerman 1984 Duncan 1983, Smith 1988, Sloan 1989, Hemphill 1995' Branscombe/ Wann 1994, Wann/Gantz 1989, Gurin/Harris 1985, Haskell 1987, LeUnes nation 1989.
Economic	Potential for economic gains through gambling	- economic	Gutteman 1986, Chorbanjian 1978, Crist 1998
Self-identity	Create / maintain positive self concept	- achievement - self-actualization - self-esteem	McClelland et al 1953, Murray 1938, Kahle et al 1996, Mahony et al 2002, Maslow 1970, Gantz 1981, Csikszentmihayli 1979
Information acquisition	To improve performance	- knowledge - physical fitness	Ryckman/Hamel 1993, Elay/Page 1999, Koivulos 1999, Brodtkin/Weiss 1990
Group Disassociation		- competition	Roberts 1984, Williams 1998

Source: own studies

Proposed Conceptualised model

Based on the literature a model is proposed which looks at the relations amongst the constructs, depicted in Figure 1. The model looks at the motivations and their affects on situational and enduring involvement. Outcome of this results in brand commitment, personal commitment, level of advocacy and level of usage.

Figure 1



Because of the exploratory nature of this research, the development of direct hypotheses was often not plausible. That is, given the lack of applicable theory and/or research, it was not appropriate to develop an expectation for each motivational pattern for each sport.

Methodology

According to Aaker, Kumar and Day (2001), rich data containing consumers’ feelings, thoughts, intentions and behaviours can be obtained only through qualitative data collection methods. The methodology of this pilot study consists of a simple survey questionnaire with fans in four different sports in the United Kingdom, the respondents were approached on the same day they attended the sport event and were asked to express their views on their motives to attend this particular sport event.

The sample size for the pilot study was 460 respondents from four different venues in the United Kingdom based on non-probability sampling. The breakdown of the sample can be found table 2. The sample mainly consisted of males aged between 18 and 70, although some of these were with families and partners.

Venue	Sample size
Coventry football club	200
Coventry Rugby club	100
Warwickshire Coventry cricket club	100
Coventry bees	60

Questions asked:

- What motivates you to spend time and money to attend this sporting event? How often do you attend who do you come with?
- What does supporting your team/club gives you?
- Are you committed to your club/team? How and why or why not?
- Are you affected by the performance of the team? How and why?
- When did you first become a fan? Are your family or friends also fans of the team?
- In your opinion are there different types of fans and what type of fan do you consider yourself to be?
- How does being a fan affect your daily life in terms of emotionally, socially and financially?

Findings/discussion

Group affiliation

Fans expressed this motive as one of the main reasons to attend Football, Rugby and Cricket matches. “I come to the game because my dad, granddad, brother come to the game”. Many of the younger fans became fans of the team from the age of five although many had kits of the team bought for the as soon as they could walk by their parents. “I come to the support the team because my friends came to sport the team”. Many fans likened their clubs as extended families to whom they owed a degree of devotion as described in religious terms (Belk et al 1989; Hill 2002). This was especially true of devoted and fanatical fans. They showed great deal of loyalty and commitment to the club by buying merchandise, attending home games and travelling to away games, preseason matches, testimonials, and even training sessions. These groups actively engage in singing and chanting before and during the match and strongly believe that such activities mark them out to as real fans of the team and the backbone of supporters.

Fanatics appear to value and promote the creation of feelings of *communitas* across likeminded people. *Communitas* involves feelings of linkage, of belonging, of group devotion to a transcendent goal. In many regards, the fan driven development of communities can be viewed in terms of brand community. Members have an almost encyclopaedic knowledge of the history of the club and celebrate the

history through prematch or halftime discussions, in which prior events are recollected. Interaction with the club is highly valued. These supporters enthusiastically engage in web site discussions and email commentaries, are keen to in joining supporter groups, and actively seek out and subscribe to newsletter and fanzines. Many of the fans likened their clubs to their extended families to whom they agreed a degree of devotion.

Emotional stimulation

The strongest motive for fans to attend matches in the different sports was examined in this study. "I enjoy the drama of close games/race", and "I enjoy it when the game is not decided until the very end", "it provides me with excitement stimulation", "game provides a distraction from everyday activities and diversions from life's little problems", "I come to games because I feel bored, lonely, and stressful", were some of the comments made by fans. Majority of the sample selected expressed that attending the sports event is a great opportunity for social interaction and great experience for them. "I enjoy interacting with other spectators at the game", "I enjoy talking with others at the game", "I enjoy going to the game with my friends to socialise", "and I enjoy taking my family to the game. It is a day out for us", "I enjoy socialising with people sitting near me at the game" and "I enjoy watching the athletic performance of the players". I enjoy bringing my clients to games to enhance working relationships", "I enjoy talking with other fans at games", some comments made by fans. Majority of these fans attended games regularly and bought game programmes and pies and drinks, there was high level of brand, personal commitment and high level of loyalty and usage.

Self identity

Laverie (1992) demonstrated that identity salience is an effective predictor of motivation for participation in a specific leisure activity. This was true in this research as those with high degree of identity with a particular club/venue attended more games. Sport participation tends to absorb fans emotionally, occasionally to an excessive level (Grove et al, 2012). "I go to the game because I am big fan of the team, individual players and venue", "I am loyal to the team by wearing team colours and attend most games", "being a fan is important to me and would experience a loss if I had to stop being a fan", "I identify (Support) the team even when they lose, and, when someone criticizes my team it feels like a personal insult", expressed some of the fans. Fanatical and some of the more devoted fans strongly identified with sports clubs/venues than temporary fans. Temporary fans lacked this strong identification with the club and hence had low commitment to the club and its players. Their connection with the club centred on the social event of supporting without any particular emotional attachment to the club or team. Such fans

elect not to develop close links with their clubs and clearly view their links as largely transactional.

An interesting observation that some of the fans were motivated because of an aggression factor they attended to “come to fight opposing team fans” and “come to swear at opposing team players and referee to get rid of my frustration and to help my team to succeed by putting off players”. This type of fans has to be addressed carefully by their respective clubs in order to change and alter their motive in attending the sport events.

Information acquisition

This was a motive given by number of fans for attending various sport events in this study. “I come to the game because it I increase my understanding of sport (football, cricket, rugby) strategy by watching the game”, “I increase my knowledge and technical aspects about football game (same was said in cricket and rugby)”, was how they expressed themselves. Most of these fans attended the games once a month and managed non league and junior teams and felt that by watching professional teams it would help to improve their team performances. The most devoted and fanatical fans knew team stats and player information of their team players and information on opposing teams. Community pride played a part in sport fans psychology, fans, viewed the club as the “as the main source of local expression” of the community and attended the sport event because “having a team in the higher league in the city increases community image and represents important symbol for the community”.

Economic

Many fans with high levels of economic motivation were not socialized into the values, beliefs, attitudes and norms associated with sport fandom. They did not perceive themselves as sports fans and did not have particularly high levels of team identification. This motive was the strongest motive to attend dog races. It is the potential gain from sport gambling that attracts them to the role of a fan. Fans were more likely to attend dog racing out of desire to wager on the event. This is reasonable given the reputation of dog racing as gambling sport. There was no evidence from fans in other sports in this study as being the main reason to attend for economic gains. Therefore, many economically motivated fans are by definition, not fans at all. Instead, they participate in the pastime simply for the potential monetary rewards that accrue through sport wagering.

Group dissociation

Very small minority of fans who attended the sporting event came by themselves, sat by themselves and did not speak to any other fans. They bought a game

programme and sat in the same seats (area) every time but did not buy any other form of merchandise. In cricket they took packed lunch. This motive was evident in cricket, dog racing and less in football and rugby.

Overall the three strongest motivations were motivations emotional stimulation, group affiliation and group identity.

Implication for sports marketers

An enhanced understanding of spectator and fan motivation can be of considerable benefit to the sports marketer (James and Ross 2004; Trail et al 2003; Trail and James 2001). The result gleaned from this study (once empirical work has been done) could be of benefit to the marketing professional that is attempting to develop new strategies to reach sports consumers. The development of promotional campaigns and marketing strategies around these sport-specific motives can aid in the marketing of a particular sport, thus driving attendance and consumption. These sport specific motives can be employed by the sport marketer as a method of segmentation and increase additional revenue as consumers are being presented with an increasing number of entertainment options. In-depth understanding of various motivations within sport fans group enables marketers to address them in a way most suitable and meet their needs more fully. Different levels of fanship indicate different needs groups. For practitioners such behaviours give multiple ways to communicate with fans and fulfil their needs for association.

Limitations

The results of the research are not showcasing any significant culture impact on fandom in sports. In the diverse British society with constant flow of immigrants from variety of countries it's a surprising outcome, indicating that sports unite variety of cultures (Owen 2013). Further research is suggested to provide in-depth exploration of differences in fanship among various cultural groups.

Conclusion

Motivating fans of sport is an important element for achieving competitive edge within the sport industry; however, in order to achieve this uniqueness, fans classification is crucial for sport organisations. This is because each type of fans requires special attention and hence special targeting and motivation method, some can be motivated by their families and their social backgrounds and others by the sport event itself. Finding the right balance is indeed challenging, nevertheless it is important to start investigating the extents of these motivations within the different sport venues, which will be the second stage of this research.

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Appendix 3 Sample size breakdown

Venue	Sample size
Coventry football club	200
Coventry Rugby club	100
Warwickshire Coventry cricket club	100
Coventry bees	60



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Personality Differences in Organisational Socialisation Tactics

Abstract: The demographic shifts, the increased workforce mobility, and the shortage of skilled workers have led to a new thinking within human resource management. To address this issue, organisations adapt their methods towards a higher focus on their employees. The purpose of this paper is therefore the identification of organisational socialisation tactics, which are classified into the individualized socialisation strategy and the institutionalised socialisation strategy. Studies show that the institutionalised socialisation strategy causes better results in terms of newcomer adjustment than the individualized socialisation strategy. In this context, the institutionalised socialization strategy determines that organisations consider newcomers' personalities and demographic characteristics. The results of this paper support this argument and reveal that students in the DACH region differ in their organisational socialisation preferences. In other words, a well-structured organisational socialisation process, which considers newcomers' personalities can lead to a competitive advantage for organisations.

Key Words: Organisational Socialisation, Socialisation Tactics, Institutionalised Socialisation, Socialisation Preferences

Introduction

For new employees the first days and weeks of their employment are often related to high levels of stress and anxiety (Van Maanen, 1978) as they are entering

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an unfamiliar environment (Louis, 1980). Literature often refers to this initial time as organisational socialisation. Organisational socialisation is characterised by the newcomers' learning about the organisation, their work group, and the necessary skills and knowledge for their work tasks (Fisher, 1986).

This initial period of time is very crucial, both for the organisation and new employees, as newcomers are very receptive for new information during the organisational socialisation (Berthel and Becker, 2013). Moreover, newcomers realize during their starting time if they fit to the organisation. This fact strongly influences their decision to stay within the company in the long run (Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg, 2003). According to Allen (2006), many new employees decide against their company, which leads to a high fluctuation especially in the first year of employment. A high fluctuation in the first year results in a negative outcome for organisations as the expenses for the recruiting and selection process will be higher than the actual value which the new employee contributed to the organisation (Bauer et al., 1998).

Organisations have to be aware of the fact that the way how they treat their new employees has wide-ranging consequences. In fact, organisations have the possibility to influence the newcomers' learning processes by the use of different organisational socialisation tactics (Van Maanen, 1978). Various organisational socialisation tactics not only have an influence on the organisational socialisation process itself, but also on the newcomers' adjustment to the organisation (Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986; Saks et al., 2007). Organisations can improve these organisational socialisation processes by the choice of appropriate organisational socialisation tactics and also by considering new employees' personality (Gruman and Saks, 2011). If organisations make investments in organisational socialisation practices that focus on newcomers' personality traits, there might be valuable changes in new employees' work quality and retention in the longer term (Cable et al., 2013). Bauer et al. (1998, p. 164) stated that "newcomers' preferences for different types of socialisation tactics is an issue that deserves future research attention". On the basis of this statement and the important personality traits of new employees, Gruman and Saks (2011) conducted a study which shows socialisation preferences of Canadian students according to their personality traits. However, it is not advisable to generalise the outcomes to other newcomers (Gruman and Saks, 2011), as cultural diversity might have an influence on socialisation preferences (Bauer et al., 1998). As there is no actual data about the DACH region in terms of students' socialisation preferences, our study analyses the organisational socialisation preferences of students in the DACH region and reveals preference differences according to their various personality traits and additionally their demographic characteristics.

Organisational Socialisation Tactics

New employees are in a so-called anxiety-producing situation when they start in a new company. Newcomers are motivated to reduce the grade of anxiety and want to learn their new tasks quickly and carefully. In this context, organisational socialisation tactics are a crucial part for organisations and the whole socialisation process (Van Maanen, 1978). In figure 1, Jones (1986) classifies the organisational socialisation tactics into the context, content, and social area, and differentiates between the institutionalised and the individualised strategy, which are considered as organisational socialisation strategies. The difference between the two strategies is that, for the new employee, the individualised socialisation strategy leads to a more innovative role interpretation, while the institutionalised socialisation strategy leads to a more custodial role interpretation (Ashforth et al., 2007; Jones, 1986; Saks et al. 2007).

Figure 1: A Classification of Socialisation Tactics (adapted based on Jones, 1986, p. 263)

	Institutionalised	Individualised
Context Area	Institutionalised Context Tactics	Individualised Context Tactics
Content Area	Institutionalised Content Tactics	Individualised Content Tactics
Social Area	Institutionalised Social Tactics	Individualised Social Tactics

Source: own research

According to Jones (1986), the context area of the socialisation describes the way in which organisations provide the necessary information to new employees. The second area is about the actual content which the given information to newcomers has and provides newcomers with specific information concerning their future organisational process like the timeframe of organisational socialisation. The third and last area is called social area and is focuses on social and interpersonal relationships between the new employee and responsible persons for the organisational socialisation process. Tasks related to the social area include dealing with feedback, the identity recognition of the new employee and the new employee’s support by a trusted organisational insider (Bauer et al., 2007).

The institutionalised socialisation strategy provides new employees with information in a structured way and thereby reduces their grade of anxiety (Saks et al.,

2007). By the use of the institutionalised socialisation strategy, the values and norms of the organisation can be passed to the new employee much more sophisticatedly (Cable et al., 2013). The institutionalised socialisation strategy has a positive influence on custodial role orientation, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and the proactive socialisation behaviour of new employees. Furthermore, the institutionalised socialisation strategy has a negative influence on the newcomers' role ambiguity, role conflict, and intentions to quit (Ashforth and Saks, 1996; Ashforth et al., 2007; Changhong Lu and Tjosvold, 2013; Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986; Saks et al., 2007).

By using the individualised socialisation strategy, the organisational socialisation process is characterised by a certain absence of structure (Saks et al., 2007) and an approach towards sink-or-swim (Berthel and Becker, 2013). In a company, which applies the individualised socialisation strategy, new employees often start to work immediately at their workplace. Employees are expected to figure out the necessary skills and working procedures, as well as information about the organisation, on their own, without much help of a structured socialisation programme. As the environment is defined by a very informal approach, new employees have to have a more proactive behaviour to understand the company's expectations and circumstances (Bauer and Erdogan, 2010). However, the individualised socialisation strategy provides the new employee with the possibility to develop his or her own point of view, which can lead to an innovative interpretation of his or her role within the organisation (Jones, 1986).

Personality in the Organisational Socialisation

In the socialisation process, not only the choice of a socialisation tactic or strategy is important, but also the personality of new employees has to be considered. In fact, newcomer adjustment can be improved by socialisation practices which focus on the newcomers' personal identities (Cable et al., 2013). During the socialisation process, newcomers not only seek to reduce their uncertainty and anxiety (Van Maanen, 1978), but also desire for certain grades of authenticity and self-expression. Socialisation tactics which pay attention to new employees' personality traits are more likely to be effective in terms of employment relationship between newcomers and organisations (Cable et al., 2013). Paying attention to the importance of personality for organisational socialisation, the socialisation should be adapted to the newcomers' personality traits to a certain extent (Cable et al., 2013). This raises the question of which personality traits do have an actual influence on the preferences for the different organisational socialisation tactics. Some studies discussed this question (Bauer et al., 1998; Feldman, 1990; Gruman and Saks, 2011), and, by using the approach of Gruman and Saks (2011), the following empirical study examines the influence of six defined personality traits to preferences for the different socialisation tactics.

Hypotheses

As stated by Gruman and Saks (2011), newcomers’ personality traits have an influence on socialisation preferences. Additionally, Bauer et al. (1998) outlined that newcomers’ demographic characteristics might have an influence on their preferences for socialisation tactics. Based on these two statements, Figure 2 shows the expected influence according to six personality traits for newcomers’ socialisation preferences, by the use of the illustrated hypotheses.

Figure 2: Influence of Personality on Socialisation Preferences

Personality/Tactics	Institutionalised Context	Institutionalised Content	Institutionalised Social
Extraversion	H1a	H1b	H1c
Agreeableness	H2a	H2b	H2c
Conscientiousness	H3a	H3b	H3c
Neuroticism	H4a	H4b	H4c
Openness	H5a	H5b	H5c
Proactive Personality	H6a	H6b	H6c

The first hypothesis is about the influence of students’ extraversion on their preference for the institutionalised socialisation tactics. In this context, extraverted persons are described as persons who are sociable, gregarious, assertive, talkative, and active (Barrick and Mount, 1991). Therefore, we assume that students high on extraversion prefer the institutionalised socialisation tactics as they like being around other people and socialize with them (Gruman and Saks, 2011).

H 1: *The grade of students’ extraversion has a positive influence on their preference for the institutionalised a) context, b) content, and c) social socialisation tactics.*

The second hypothesis is about the influence of students’ agreeableness to their preference for the institutionalised socialisation tactics. Persons who have a high degree of agreeableness are courteous, flexible, trusting, good-natured, cooperative, forgiving, soft-hearted, and tolerant (Barrick and Mount, 1991). Furthermore, agreeable individuals try to avoid controversies and are more likely to interact with other persons (Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Additionally to these facts, agreeable persons accept existing procedures in the organisation to a higher extent, whereby it is more likely that students high on agreeableness prefer the institutionalised socialisation tactics (Gruman and Saks, 2011).

Hypothesis 2: *The grade of students’ agreeableness has a positive influence on their preference for the institutionalised a) context, b) content, and c) social socialisation tactics.*

The third hypothesis describes influence of students' conscientiousness to their preference for the institutionalised socialisation tactics. A conscientious person is more likely to be careful, thorough, responsible, organised, hardworking, achievement-orientated, and persevering (Barrick and Mount, 1991). Based on the mentioned attributes, students high on conscientiousness probably prefer a socialisation that facilitates organisation and careful planning, which characterises the institutionalised socialisation tactics (Gruman and Saks, 2011).

Hypothesis 3: *The grade of students' conscientiousness has a positive influence on their preference for the institutionalised a) context, b) content, and c) social socialisation tactics.*

The fourth hypothesis illustrates the influence of students' neuroticism to their preference for the institutionalised socialisation tactics. Some attributes which describe a neurotic personality are anxiousness, depression, angriness, embarrassment, emotionality, and insecurity (Barrick and Mount, 1991). As neurotic persons tend to interpret new situations often very negatively (Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000), they are more likely to prefer socialisation which gives them structure and social support (Gruman and Saks, 2011). Therefore, we assume that students high on neuroticism prefer the institutionalised socialisation tactics (Gruman and Saks, 2011).

Hypothesis 4: *The grade of students' neuroticism has a positive influence on their preference for the institutionalised a) context, b) content, and c) social socialisation tactics.*

The fifth hypothesis deals with the influence of students' openness to their preference for the individualised socialisation tactics. Persons with a high grade of openness are characterised as imaginative, cultured, curious, original, broad-minded, and intelligent (Barrick and Mount, 1991). Considering the mentioned attributes, open individuals' act more actively regarding the information and feedback seeking (Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). In contrast to neurotic individuals, open individuals are more curious and tolerant about new situations, whereby it is more likely that students high on openness prefer the individualised socialisation tactics as these tactics are less structured and offer a higher chance for creativity and innovation (Gruman and Saks, 2011).

Hypothesis 5: *The grade of students' openness has a positive influence on their preference for the individualised a) context, b) content, and c) social socialisation tactics.*

The sixth hypothesis describes the influence of the proactive personality of students on their preference for the individualised socialisation tactics. People with a proactive personality have a desire to influence their environment by their own actions (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2011). Therefore, it is more likely that students with a high grade of proactive personality prefer the individualised socialisation tactics, as these tactics give them a better opportunity to follow an innovative approach and change the status-quo (Gruman and Saks, 2011).

Hypothesis 6: *The grade of students' proactive personality has a positive influence on their preference for the individualised a) context, b) content, and c) social socialisation tactics.*

Methods

The target group for this study is defined with current students who have their present main residence in Germany, Austria, or Switzerland. These three countries are defined in this paper as DACH region. During the survey period, 322 participants started the online-questionnaire. 60 participants did not finish the whole questionnaire, which implies a dropout rate of 18.63 percent. 262 fully completed and therefore valid questionnaires were received in total.

Subtracting eight questionnaires from non-student participants, in total 254 questionnaires were used for the data analysis process. The average age of the participants was 23.88 years with a range from 19 to 47 years and forty one percent indicated their gender as male. The average working experience was 29.88 months with a range from zero to 350 months. Regarding the current residence of the students, 67 percent stated Austria, 23 percent Germany, and 10 percent Switzerland.

To collect the necessary data, a questionnaire-link was distributed via available e-mail addresses of students and personal messages to other students via social media platforms. The link was valid and online from May 1st, 2014 until May 14th, 2014, which implies a survey period of exactly two weeks. As Malhotra (2012) stated, the distribution via e-mail and social media is a well-working way to generate a large number of responses. This data collection method also has the advantage that it keeps the costs on a very low level as there are for instance, no printing costs for the surveys. As the data collection via e-mail and social media allows the researcher to customize the addressed persons (Malhotra, 2012), a random sampling was applied.

In empirical research the increasing availability of large data sets has enabled great advances. To draw a sufficiently large sample size a snowball sampling approach was applied. By the use of the snowball principle, the researcher can be supported by the help of other persons and institutions, which are distributing the questionnaire among their network. This way of collecting data is especially beneficial, if, in a random sampling, not all persons of a target group are specifically reachable, but reachable through the connection to other persons of the target group (Häder, 2010). However, the drawback of snowball sampling is due to several sources of bias. (Atkinson and Flint, 2001) Since the recruiting of new respondents is influenced by the respondents themselves, the researcher has only limited control of the final participants in the sample. Additionally, if strong homophily exists between individuals, the researcher is confronted with a homogenous cluster. (Illenberger & Flötteröd, 2012). As this situation is given for the target group of students in the DACH region, the snowball principle was applied in the data collection procedure.

After the completion of the data collection period, the following statistics can be stated:

- 3,426 students were contacted via e-mail and 123 students were contacted via

personal messages on social media platforms, which implies a total of 3,549 directly contacted students

- 322 participants could be generated during the survey period, which results in a response rate of 9.07 percent

By reviewing the statistics, it has to be mentioned that the snowball principle used is not included. As the 123 students who were contacted via social media platforms were asked to distribute and share the questionnaire-link to students in their own network, the actual response rate is probably lower than the presented 9.07 percent.

Five-Factor Model of Personality

For the first section in which data about students' personality characteristics were collected, five personality factors were used. The five-factor model with the factors extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness is very robust and provides an adequate framework for defining and testing of hypotheses in terms of individual differences in personality (Barrick and Mount, 1991). As scales which are short in length reduce some forms of bias caused by participants' overtiredness and carelessness (Podsakoff et al., 2003), the 10-item short version of the five-factor model by Rammstedt and John (2007) was used. Although there are some slight reliability and validity losses in comparison to the original 44-item version of the five-factor model (John et al., 1991), it is argued that for research where time is limited the 10-item short version is an adequate assessment of personality (Rammstedt and John, 2007). For the five-factor model, the participants provided responses on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree"). The higher the scores on each scale, the higher was the participant's personality characteristic for the queried personality trait. The negatively polarized items were recoded before the analysis tests started. The coefficient alphas for the five factors were: extraversion ($\alpha = 0.815$), agreeableness ($\alpha = 0.687$), conscientiousness ($\alpha = 0.739$), neuroticism ($\alpha = 0.756$), and openness ($\alpha = 0.743$).

To collect data about the proactive personality of the participants, a modified 10-item scale by Seibert et al. (1999) was used. In comparison to the original 17-item scale by Bateman and Crant (1993), the losses in terms of reliability and validity are minimal, whereby the shortened version "appears to be comparable to the full 17-item version" (Seibert et al., 1999, p. 419). As already mentioned, a short questionnaire length prevents some bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003), which supports the use of the modified 10-item scale. For the modified 10-item proactive personality scale, the participants provided responses on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 7 ("strongly agree"). The higher the scores on each scale, the higher was the participant's grade of proactive personality. For the proactive personality factor the coefficient alpha was ($\alpha = 0.812$).

The third section of the questionnaire asked participants about demographical characteristics. This section includes questions about participant’s current student status and current main residence, which are both criteria for exclusion, if participants stated no or if they stated other countries than Germany, Austria, or Switzerland.

The students’ preferences for the organisational socialisation were ascertained by using the 30-item measure developed by Jones (1986). As our study is about the students’ preferences for the different tactics, the original items were slightly changed to give students the possibility to express their preferences. In this context, students were asked to imagine a situation where they start to work in a new organisation and could decide how they would like to run through the first 90 days of employment. The participants provided responses on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 7 (“strongly agree”). The higher the scores on each scale, the higher was the participant’s preference for the institutionalised socialisation tactics. To ensure that this statement is also valid for the negatively polarized items, these negative items were recoded before the execution of the analytic tests. The adjusted coefficient alpha for the three scales was: context ($\alpha = 0.732$), content ($\alpha = 0.748$), and social ($\alpha = 0.618$).

Results

Table 1 shows the means and standard deviations of the three socialisation preference scales. In the first place, it is important to mention that the results of all three areas indicate a general preference for the institutionalised socialisation as they were all above the midpoint. Secondly, it can be seen that for the institutionalised context tactics the preference is higher than the preference for the institutionalised content and social tactics.

Table 1: Means of Socialisation Areas

Descriptive Statistics for the Socialisation Preferences			
	Context Tactics	Content Tactics	Social Tactics
Mean	5.122	4.865	4.995
Standard Deviation	1.435	1.515	1.414

Source: own research

To test the six hypotheses of our study, three multiple linear regressions were conducted. For each of these regressions, one area of socialisation tactics was regressed on the six personality variables. Table 2 summarizes the outcomes of these analyses.

Table 2: Multiple Linear Regressions for Personality Variables and Socialisation Tactics Preferences

Multiple Linear Regressions			
	Context Tactics	Content Tactics	Social Tactics
Extraversion	-0.144*	-0.091	0.010
Agreeableness	0.123	-0.020	0.028
Conscientiousness	0.147*	0.190**	0.108
Neuroticism	0.062	0.132*	0.147*
Openness	0.047	0.048	-0.009
Proactive Personality	0.072	0.201**	0.124
R ²	0.051*	0.090**	0.041
Adjusted R ²	0.028*	0.068**	0.018

N = 254 / * p < 0.05 / ** p < 0.01 / The values in the table are standardized beta weights (β)

Source: own research

As indicated in Table 2, the personality variables show a significant amount of variance in the context of socialisation tactics ($R^2 = 0.051$, $p < 0.05$) and the content of socialisation tactics ($R^2 = 0.090$, $p < 0.01$), but no significance in the social socialisation tactics ($R^2 = 0.041$, $p > 0.05$). Among the six personality variables, extraversion was negatively and significantly related to the institutionalised context socialisation tactics ($\beta = -0.144$, $p < 0.05$). Conscientiousness was positively and significantly related to both the institutionalised context ($\beta = 0.147$, $p < 0.05$) and institutionalised content ($\beta = 0.190$, $p < 0.01$) socialisation tactics. These results support hypotheses 3a and 3b. Neuroticism was positively and significantly related to both the institutionalised content ($\beta = 0.132$, $p < 0.05$) and institutionalised social ($\beta = 0.147$, $p < 0.05$) socialisation tactics. These results support hypotheses 4b and 4c. The proactivity personality of students was positively and significantly related to the institutionalised content socialisation tactics ($\beta = 0.201$, $p < 0.01$). For the personality variables agreeableness and openness, no significant relation to at least one of the three socialisation tactics could be identified.

Discussion

Similar to the results of Gruman and Saks (2011), our findings confirm that personality traits have an influence on the socialisation preferences. Gruman and Saks (2011) detected that especially the students' agreeableness significantly influences the students' preferences for all three areas of institutionalised socialisation tactics. Moreover, they stated that the students' personality traits influence above all the students' preferences for the institutionalised social socialisation tactics. In fact, the students' grade of agreeableness did not significantly influence the students' preferences for any of the three areas of socialisation in this study. The results indicated rather that the students' grades of conscientiousness and neuroticism are

the most important personality traits in predicting the students' preferences for the institutionalised socialisation tactics. Also the second main statement by Gruman and Saks (2011) could not be approved as our study indicated that the students' personality traits influence above all the students' preferences for the institutionalised content socialisation tactics. However, Gruman and Saks (2011) stated that the students' personality traits significantly influence students' preferences for the institutionalised content tactics, which confirms our results.

Apart from the two mentioned comparisons, the investigations in terms of proactive personality revealed a quite unexpected result. Although it was assumed that students with a high grade of proactive personality prefer the individualised socialisation tactics than students with a lower grade of proactive personality, the results show the exact opposite, especially for the content socialisation area. These results are partly the same as the results by Gruman and Saks (2011), with the difference, that in our study, a much higher significance can be seen. A possible reason for this result might be that newcomers need a structured socialisation process before they are able to act out their proactive personality by seeking feedback and building relationships (Griffin et al., 2000). To sum up the study results, three main findings can be stated. Firstly, and apart from the hypotheses, the study showed that students have a general preference for the institutionalised socialisation tactics. Secondly, in terms of personality, especially the students' grades of conscientiousness and neuroticism have the most significant influences for students' socialisation preferences. Thirdly, the students' personality influences above all students' preferences the institutionalised content socialisation tactics.

Limitations

The target group for our study is strictly limited to current students from the DACH region. Associated to this target group, it is generally not advisable to generalise the results to other types of potential new employees who have for instance no university education (Gruman and Saks, 2011). In terms of the study design, some further limitations have to be made. By the use of a cross-sectional design through different topics in the survey and self-reported data, a common-method bias might influence the results. The risk of such a common-method bias can be reduced through methods like the use of existing scales with multiple items, different scale anchors and values, and negatively worded items, which were applied in the questionnaire of our study. The use of self-report data is, to a certain extent, influenced by the respondent's mood and condition and therefore a risk in terms of common-method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Conclusion

Our study evaluated the topic organisational socialisation and focused in the first place on the different socialisation tactics and the classification of these tactics.

The empirical part dealt with the socialisation preferences and potential differences regarding newcomers' personality and demographic characteristics. By using the available academic literature and the results of the conducted empirical study, the following can be concluded:

Organisational socialisation is an important topic for organisations as the first days and weeks of a new employee are a crucial time for the further collaboration. In fact, organisations have the opportunity to influence the outcomes of the organisational socialisation by the use of different socialisation tactics and strategies. The tactics can be classified both in areas and strategies. The identifiable areas are the context area, which describes the way how organisations are providing the organisational socialisation process to new employees, the content area, which is about time regulations and the framework for organisational socialisation, and the social area, which contains the interpersonal factor in the organisational socialisation of newcomers.

In terms of strategies, two general strategies are identified in our study, namely the institutionalised and the individualised socialisation strategy. The main difference between institutionalised and the individualised socialisations strategy is that the institutionalised socialisation is characterised by a more formal approach, which leads to a more custodial role orientation for newcomers. In contrast to that, the individualised socialisation strategy is characterised by a more informal and flexible approach, which leads to a more innovative role orientation for newcomers. Beyond that the institutionalised socialisation strategy generates positive outcomes for new employees' organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and proactive socialisation behaviour and negatively influences new employees' role ambiguity, role conflict, and intentions to quit. Our findings reveal that students from the DACH region have a general preference for the institutionalised socialisation strategy. Considering the identified positive outcomes of the institutionalised socialisation tactics, this general preference is not very surprising as the institutionalised socialisation strategy provides structure, guidance, and information that can decrease the students' uncertainty and anxiety in the initial time of their employment.

Through the investigation of the six stated hypotheses, it was revealed that the students' personality characteristics do matter for their socialisation preferences. In terms of personality, the students' grades of conscientiousness and neuroticism have the biggest influence on their socialisation preferences towards institutionalised socialisation tactics, while the students' grades of extraversion and proactive personality have only slighter influences. For the personality traits agreeableness and openness our study showed that both are actually not significantly related to students' socialisation preferences. It can be concluded that students in the DACH region have a general preference for the institutionalised socialisation strategy. The degree, however, varies across students' personality traits and demographic characteristics.

Implications for Practice

Since the initial period of time are crucial for the individual and the organisation the results of this research have implications for new employees and organisations before and after starting with the new job. Organisations might discuss the socialisation process with new employees prior to entry to better understand the expectations and preferences of their new employees. If organisations try to match the socialization preferences with their actual socialisation experience they may avoid high fluctuation in the first year. (Bauer et al. 1998)

That being said, it seems that individuals prefer the institutionalised context tactics. This seems especially true for students who are beginning a full-time job after their graduation. These graduates will benefit from the context and structure provided by the organisation. Moreover, to the extent that conscientiousness has a higher influence on the context tactics, compared to the other dimension, a proactive personality has the highest influence on content tactics while neuroticism influences most the social tactics. These finding suggest that individuals who are low on openness and extraversion are most at risk for poor adjustment and socialization within an organisation. Therefore, organisations are best advised to consider the needs of the newcomers when providing them with socialisation experiences. New employees with lower intentions of being open or extraverted will be most likely in need of and most likely to benefit from the socialisation tactics of the organisation. Organisations may facilitate the on-boarding process when providing newcomers with information and instruction on the expected proactive behaviour or implementing a social events with organisational members and by assigning newcomers a mentor for a given period of time.

Our findings that some students do not intend to be as proactive as others should give concern to universities and to organisations. Universities should develop their curricula based on competences in which proactive behaviour is encouraged. Additional education of the students about the importance of proactive behaviour when beginning a new job may help students and organisations to reduce the fluctuation at the early entry stage.

Implications for Research

The findings of this study lead to several new areas of research. First, given that a different cultural background may have an influence on the socialization preference, in how far can we say, that a person from a given cultural background prefers one socialization tactic over the other? Second, assuming that individuals prefer a particular socialization tactics, what happens if these preferences are not met? Although Bauer et al. (1998) suggest that newcomers' job attitude might be affected by the extent to which the tactics used by their organisation are similar to their preferences, has not been researched yet. Future research might investi-

gate on a comparison between institutionalised and individualised preferences. In other words, in how far do individuals prefer an organisation which provides new employees information in a structured way compared to an organisation with the absence of a structure with a sink-or swim approach? (Berthel and Becker, 2013)

What has been not addressed in this article is the estimation of moderating effects of demographic variables like age, gender or the grade of working experience. A person's age influences his or her values and attitudes to work, ability for physical and mental functioning, and thoughts about everyday topics and concerns (Jackson et al., 1993). Saks et al. (2007) argue that older students react differently to socialisation tactics as they have another kind of thinking than younger students (Saks et al., 2007). As older students are often more experienced than younger students and have a different self-evaluation, it is more likely that older students prefer the individualised socialisation tactics (Gruman and Saks, 2011). Also men's and women's reactions to socialisation tactics are indeed different (Lefkowitz, 1994). Men describe themselves as more mature, while important characteristics for women are their expressiveness and their concern for others (Lefkowitz, 1994). Generally men and women have a different social background (Alvesson and Biling, 1992), which leads to the assumption that there are gender differences in the preferences for the institutionalised socialisation tactics. Additionally, there might be a difference between inexperienced students and students with some work experience as inexperienced students have a greater need for information, structure, and guidance during the socialisation process (Saks, et al., 2007). Moreover, it is possible that more experienced students have different preferences as they have already gone through some kind of socialisation before. (Gruman and Saks, 2011)

From the methodological point of view a different sampling may reveal different results. Various methods to account for snowball sampling bias have been proposed in the past (Frank & Snijders, 1994; Thompson & Frank, 2000; Heckathorn, 2002; Chow and Thompson, 2003; Volz & Heckathorn, 2008; Handcock & Gille, 2010) Since snowball sampling can be implemented in quite different variants, each specification usually requires its own inference approach (Illenberger & Flötteröd, 2012). Further research should therefore focus on the effects on variations in different sampling designs. And finally, because the participants of this study were students caution is required when generalizing the results. Studies using student samples are readily available, as these samples are convenient and readily accessible. Besides the accessibility, convenience and low cost, students are more open to complicated designs. This can yield data which otherwise would be hard to collect for from instance employees or managers. Bello et al. (2009) Studies from practise involving employees and managers would shed additional light on this research area.

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